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ABSTRACT

This publication contains five chapters that focus on individual perspectives of reform in administrator-preparation programs. In "One Person's Links Between Administration and the Academy," Ann Weaver Hart offers a self-study that views administrative leadership as an ongoing process of social validation and socialization. Diana G. Pounder, in "Reflections of a Practitioner in Academia," provides an alternative view to the myth of the rational and all-knowing administrator. "Reappraising Personal Experience in the Reform of Curriculum in Educational Administration," by Paul V. Bredeson, examines the use of personal administrative experiences as a basis for thinking about and effecting curricular reform in educational administration. In "Career Assessment as a Guide to Administrator Preparation and Evaluation," Virginia L. Wylie and Robert O. Michael describe Valdosta State College (Georgia) faculty's development and testing of a career-assessment instrument that examines student perceptions of selected personal and professional factors in securing and succeeding in administrative positions. "Professional Formation and a Tri-Dimensional Approach to the Preservice Preparation of School Administrators," by John C. Daresh, presents a conceptual model for improving administrator-education programs that is based on greater university/school collaboration and increased provision of clinical learning opportunities. References accompany each chapter. (LMI)

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REFORM IN ADMINISTRATOR PREPARATION PROGRAMS: INDIVIDUAL PERSPECTIVES

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UNIVERSITY COUNCIL FOR EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION
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REFORM IN ADMINISTRATOR PREPARATION PROGRAMS: INDIVIDUAL PERSPECTIVES

UCEA MONOGRAPH SERIES

Series Editors
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Chapter 1

One Person's Links Between Administration and the Academy

Ann Weaver Hart[1]

The academic field of educational administration attracts people from various backgrounds—retired or reoriented superintendents and principals and career academics whose interest in educational administration began in such diverse disciplines as history, sociology, psychology, or management science. All these people have experiential, observational, and experimental knowledge that contributes to the quality of the field. Consequently, the relationship of administrative practice to the conceptualization of research and training in educational administration may be strong or weak depending on the conceptual, theoretical, and practical links established by and between professors and practitioners.

This paper explores the recognition of links between practice and research which have meaning for one professor. It is an extremely personal view and is offered as such. The main feature of these links is their grounding in an eclectic use of sources of data, forms of knowledge, and hermeneutics. As a principal, I came to value many sources of information—experience, observation, and experiment—all legitimate sources of data for research in the social sciences and a source of practical wisdom (Garrison, 1986). Ways of knowing emerged that I hope tapped scientific, historical, and philosophical knowledge and methods of gathering and assessing knowledge. At the same time, action was required. In the process, I came to value knowledge but to be suspicious of recipes for behavior isolated from the uniqueness of each situation. As this attitude about knowledge and action developed, so did a research agenda and conception of administrative preparation. I also became convinced that the processes of careful analysis used in qualitative or naturalistic research can serve as a model for reflection in administration (Hart, 1985, 1987; Schön, 1983). The professorship has strengthened this perspective by providing the time

and the scholarly resources necessary for me to systematize what I learned in the principalship and build a research agenda integrated with prior administrative experience.

The discussion that follows covers several stages in the development of this view of the link between administration and research. First, I describe an idea for self-study that developed out of experiences in graduate school. Second, I briefly lay out the view of administrative leadership as an ongoing process of social validation and socialization which grew from this self-study. Finally, the specific contributions of experience as a principal to my research on principals and to my view of administrator preparation are set forth. Practice (as data from experience useful in research) and research (as a framework for sense making in reflective practice) and the integration of multiple ways of knowing were linked throughout this process.

Principal: A Research Agenda and Safety Net

While completing research on the effects of administrator succession on the performance of schools and districts (Hart & Ogawa, 1987; Ogawa & Hart, 1985), I attended the UCEA graduate students' seminar in Montreal, Canada in 1983. I had just been appointed as principal of a junior high school and was interested in integrating my research and professional career. During the course of the seminar and talks with Louis Pondy and other presenters, I realized that little research exploring the "native view" (Gregory, 1983) of successors to administrative positions existed in the literature. Additionally, my appointment had caused a bit of a furor, and I felt a need for some way to monitor and improve my performance. With the encouragement of Lou Pondy, I turned to naturalistic research.

The study that developed offered an outsider successor's personal view, a diary participant observation. While this device had advantages, ameliorating gaps identified in the literature, the resulting report was unique and phenomenological. However, the process provided a means for integrating graduate study, research, and practice. Many of my decisions and choices as a principal resulted from the insight gained while collecting and analyzing data. It provided me with an exploration of the insider view and a vehicle for hypothesis building in administrative leadership research. It also helped me make sense of my own experience. Like other students of administration, I had been struck by the dimensions of leadership embodied in various definitions emphasizing traits, situations, and behavior and their integration in contingency theories. My traits seemed set, and some of them were causing problems. The situation was tumultuous. My behavior had yet to be forged. I sought some basis on which to act. I asked myself: a personal enchantment with ideas aside, what good is all of this?

One caveat should precede a description of the process followed. While it was useful, it was much too time consuming to serve as an ongoing method of reflection for principals. Instead, an economical condensation of naturalistic research methods would be required for any application of these methods for administrators in the field (Hart, 1986).

Method

Data gathering began with my first contact with district officials. When transition, adjustment, and uncertainty disappeared from the field notes, I stopped the daily systematic data gathering on which the study was based. The dominant method of data collection was total participant observation. Additional data came from existing documents, documents generated during the succession, and informal interviews. These data protected against reshaped interpretations in light of later events.

Field notes were recorded each evening on audio tape, often replayed during a long commute, and transcribed later. The field notes included three sections: observations, informal interviews, and personal reflections on the experience. Data were limited by my ability to collect documents, make quick notes, and recall and elaborate in systematic field notes and audio tapes each day's events. During the work day, informal interviews occurred naturally. Once field notes were made, conversations to clarify information or explore issues were arranged.

Data analysis included three concurrent activities (Miles & Huberman, 1984): 1) data reduction; 2) data display; and 3) conclusion drawing/ verification. Data recording and reduction were constant activities. And, because conclusions were drawn and actions taken during data gathering, these activities were closely interwoven.

Reliability, ameliorated in part by an openly personal perspective, was a concern. Measures were taken to guard against unacceptable threats to the data, particularly from researcher effects and researcher bias. First, a junior high principal in the same district reviewed data and interpretations on an on-going basis. His responses to issues, patterns, and themes clarified many ideas and reframed interpretations. He also questioned my biases and interpretations and raised rival explanations.

Second, while data analysis was proceeding, after I left the principalship, three teachers in the school—one the union representative, one a teacher leader, and one a long time veteran widely heralded by faculty members and administrators as a maverick—were interviewed. Their views of the succession were juxtaposed against the data coding. In some ways they shocked and surprised me. Their candor was impressive. These interviews resulted in new ideas and challenges to my interpretations. Informal

interviews with other teachers and administrators were used to test rival explanations for the outcomes I observed (Guba & Lincoln, 1983; Yin, 1984).

Third, the combination of extended time in the field, peer and participant observation, multiple data sources, and rechecking of interpretations with participants safeguarded trustworthiness. External validity was of little concern, because the study was personal and focused on hypothesis and concept building. My interpretations stand as a representation of my experience, a feature of internal validity identified by LeCompte and Goetz (1982).

Consent for the study was obtained in private conversations. Some teachers probably consented under duress; imagine the difficulty of refusing the new principal the right to record her experiences. I can't assess this dynamic. While a few faculty members were initially reticent, and polite inquiries about the research were made during the early weeks of the school year, the freneticism of junior high school left most teachers with little time to ponder or adjust to the principal's examination of her own succession. Whenever the project was mentioned, eyes would glaze over with polite boredom.

Documents and field notes were coded in descriptive, explanatory, and interpretive categories. A list of forty-six (46) issues was confirmed by three readings of the data. Grouped into themes and compared with the succession literature, issues were then analyzed for their appropriate application to the data. Through this process, major themes appeared. Summary sheets, including data codes, events, conversations, and lists of individuals were prepared. Time-series charts of code frequency counts were used to build explanations and interpretations. Matrices of intermediate explanations across time and interaction with individuals across time shaped analysis of the roles of individuals and groups. Graphs and matrices of codes by individuals, intensity of codes (frequency counts) across time, and frequency of individuals' presence in the data were prepared as data display (Miles & Huberman, 1984). Data displays charted a gradual replacement of preconceived perceptions, expectations, and speculations about intentions with a social network of interaction and support (and pockets of resistance) in the school. The performance outcomes category was discarded.

Field methods of research much like those I applied to participant observation but undertaken by nonparticipant observers and interviewers have raised many questions similar to those I encountered and have offered additional insight into my growing commitment to an integrated view of practice and research. Fauske and Ogawa (1987), Ogawa and Smith (1985), and Ogawa (1991) studied the leadership succession of a principal who was a district insider. As I talked with them about the process and results of the research they conducted, we concluded that field methods like those we had applied have a variety of advantages. First, they capture the actions of

people and the interactions between administrators and others over prolonged periods of time. They facilitate the description of administrators' efforts to influence the schools in which they work and the subsequent actions and attitudes of others. Field studies over long periods of time which cover the predecessors' departures and successors' arrivals can provide data on differences in the influence of more than one administrator in the same school.

A second advantage of these methods lies in the variety of data they can yield—including traits and behaviors, situational factors, and outcomes. These data, moreover, are visible in interaction, emerging and changing over time, rich in the dynamics of socialization and social validation processes.

Finally, field methods, widely accepted in a variety of disciplines, provide a means to examine the social system in which influence takes place or falters. They reveal rich data about its important symbols, norms, idiosyncrasies, and meaning. This certainly was my experience. The findings of my project and of the work by Ogawa and his colleagues led to a growing interest in alternative explanations for administrator influence or for explanations for the prevailing belief that influence occurs.

Practice Shaping Research Agendas

A brief elaboration on how I arrived at my conclusions may be helpful before turning to a view of administrative succession which developed from the data analysis. When I arrived at the school, I found an unpromising context. Incongruities were sharply etched in the minds of important people in the setting; my own (and the selection agents') conviction that I possessed the "orientation, skills, and values" necessary to function as principal was not shared by many. Early responses from the setting were negative; they evolved into cautious optimism; they ended in cordial integration, acceptance of differences, permission to lead, and willingness to act. My experience is best described as a process. People perceived a serious incongruence. I countered this incongruence by finding important ways to contribute to the group.

These experiences in the field provided me with an important perspective on research and on the nature of knowledge. I came to appreciate that no single theory or framework provides administrators with everything they need to exercise administrative leadership in schools. The unity of ways of knowing and the utility of induction, deduction, and experience were brought vividly home. I learned to suspend judgment in and on research and practice while choosing the best of both on which to act—a tolerance for knowledge powerful enough to justify action but free from a demand for certainty that I was doing the right thing (Maslow, 1970).

However, this optimism about the harmony between practice and research is tempered both by research on administrative leadership and by the experiences of others. Bridges (1975) and Immegart (1988), for example, express a cynicism among researchers and practitioners over the heroic and fragmented view of leadership heretofore developed. March (1978) and Bridges (1975) argue that the expectations people hold for administrators' influence in schools is unrealistically high. These three scholars all challenge the heroic expectations placed on leaders by themselves and others.

Other researchers criticize excessively high expectations for leaders. They are skeptical that leaders in organizations function as many believe. Pfeffer (1978, 1981) points out the ambiguity of definitions of leadership, constraints on leaders in organizations, and the symbolic rather than substantive nature of organizational leadership preclude outcomes like those commonly expected. He argued that the similarity of the people chosen for administrative positions, the nature of administrative work, and the organizational and external environments in which administrators operate seriously constrain their influence (Pfeffer, 1978).

These objections to traditional views of leader traits and behavior, the situations in which they function, and contingencies under which they are more or less effective, combined with my own experience and research, raised anew some common questions about administrative leadership: How do people in administrative roles substantively influence other members of their organizations? How do organizational factors shape administrators and their influence, and how does that influence affect outcomes? How do administrators use symbols and meanings to influence subordinates' actions?

One view of organizations, social exchange, offered insight into possible answers to these questions more consonant with my own experience than trait, behavior, and situational research. In the social exchange perspective, people holding positions of formal authority are seen to gain influence by exchanging benefits and favors with their subordinates and superordinates. Through a series of these interactions, individual approval of the administrator is validated and secondary levels of collective approval developed (Blau, 1963, 1964; Dornbusch & Scott, 1975). This social validation of authority is necessary before an administrator is granted "moral legitimacy" by the group.

Another view of social validation names this tacit group permission to act in its behalf—"idiosyncrasy credits" (Hollander, 1961, 1979; Hollander & Julian, 1970). As new administrators demonstrate solidarity with the core values, norms, and symbols of the group and the ability and willingness to contribute to the organization, they accumulate these credits and can then deviate from some noncritical group norms without penalty. This perspective supports a view of organizations in which administrators who have

accumulated sufficient credits can move to alter the organization, its goals, or its operations while subordinates temporarily suspend judgment and even participate in attempts to influence and innovate. Moreover, social exchange theory suggests that people not only accept attempts of administrators with sufficient credit to innovate but expect them to make changes in the organization in response to problems. Leaders, as well as any other member, are socialized by the group.

Thus, once the legitimacy of administrators is validated, their ability to influence organizations grows. Social scientists offer insight into the ways in which this might happen. Smircich and Morgan (1982) theorize that leaders draw attention to elements and events in the organization for other members who then interpret them within the framework of the organizations' culture. Bartunek (1984) and Daft and Weick (1984) contend that the underlying values, or cultures, of organizations can be altered, and leaders may be the prime agents of these changes.

After examining my own data with the leisure provided by the academy and in light of these perspectives on administrative leadership, I came to understand my own practice in a new light. In place of the stage framework for administrative succession with which I began the principalship and research project, I found that the social validation of authority (Blau, 1963) leading to positive judgments which, in turn, affected others' actions better characterized my experience. The meaning ascribed to events emerged from interaction with different groups—their perceptions, expectations, and beliefs. This personal view revealed core values in the school which could not be ignored and peripheral values which could be adjusted or de-emphasized (Schein, 1984). It also revealed clear differences in people's beliefs about the critical, necessary traits of principals in that setting (Smith & Medin, 1981).

In this personal view, social validation evolved into permission from others to act on behalf of the school and forgiveness for mistakes (Hollander, 1958). Validation came from a critical core of people in the school and setting. Others then acted on new ideas and goals they previously viewed with caution; their actions resulted in positive experiences; positive assessments of the school were attributed to the change in principals; and effects were described by the participants and community members. This emergent authority followed continual diagnosis of the school social setting, multiple responses to different group needs, behavior monitoring, and the modification of inappropriate behavior. Self-monitoring (Goffman, 1969) permitted the emphasis on shared valued, valued traits, and commitment to the school.

This series of events and evolving attitudes seemed to create an environment in which outcomes were attributed to the change in administration.

While some scholars argue that attribution is a form of mental gymnastics, rationalizing unexplainable outcomes by attributing them to a leader (Pfeffer, 1978), I experienced effects on the school as a result of attribution. A description of my sense making is fairly simple (Hart, 1988):

validation = inference of influence/attribution
attribution = participants' actions (including the principal)
actions = effect

Effect emerged as a result of belief because people acted on their belief that the school would benefit. While this is probably an oversimplification and may appear passive rather than active, it represents the essential form of my experience. It also explains why I so often felt like the teachers, other administrators, support professionals, and students were accomplishing many of the things for which I was being given credit as the new principal.

A View of Practice and Preparation Reform

The result of this evolving research over the last five years has been a perspective on research and practice. The ongoing analysis of data while a principal caused me to develop a very different view of the events and people at the school than that with which I began; the analysis of this experience since joining a faculty has led me to explore the meaning of reflection in action, the link between ways of knowing in social science and experience, and possible ways of adjusting courses—not in content but in process— and the development of a design studio for reflective leadership in schools.

The principalship provided me a way of playing theory against practice, leading to new theories. The research in the principalship presented a tantalizing view of the potential of reflective processes for enhancing administrative leadership for principals. Engaging in the two activities simultaneously, I benefited in several ways. This unity provided me with:

1. a systematic examination of leadership theory leading to a conceptualization of leadership based on social exchange and socialization;

2. a test of the practicality of scaled down methods of participant observation for the exercise of deliberate reflection in practice;

3. experience with inductive and deductive processes of sense making in experience and action and of theory modification and development (Garrison, 1986) at the same time;

4. a source of information about further research designs to add additional cases to the body of evidence; and

5. a relevant and targeted research agenda including both administrative leadership as a theoretical construct and processes of reflection to promote its success in schools.

The research agenda all of this led to includes:

1. succession delineating leadership;

2. social validation of authority—an interactive, exchange process embedded in the values and meanings participants attribute to leader/organization relationships;

3. the socialization of administrative leaders in each new social system setting;

4. role of social incongruence in leadership validation leading to influence, the nature of leadership combining exchange and meaning, and an agenda for investigations that facilitate the success of leaders with more diverse background and experiences in schools; and

5. a search for and trial of new techniques for improving reflective thought and promoting the habit and expectation of reflection in administrator preparation programs.

The principalship experience and research and reading since then also have led to conversations in the department of educational administration at Utah. The faculty decided, as part of its participation in a Danforth Foundation program for university preparation of administrators to conceptualize and pilot test some of these techniques modeled after Donald Schön's reflection-in-action and design studios for reflective leadership. This lengthy and gradual process will, we hope, eventually help clarify the difference between a program irrelevant to school leadership and a program that pushes school leadership into the future rather than preparing principals to be just like they've always been.

A final benefit of this unification of experience and research was the articulation of a personal definition of high quality school leadership. The ability to diagnose, define, and frame problems in unique situations, draw on the knowledge base and experience (which is part of the overall knowledge base but does not *define* reality in all situations), and design

appropriate action in a variety of settings, increases the likelihood a very good solution will be pursued successfully.

Some Reflections in Conclusion

This entire process, from graduate study to principal to researcher, was inductive. While I began with theories, their modification was almost immediate as soon as I hit the setting of school administration. But because it was inductive and because it depended on group validation, much of which I could only influence and had no control over, some have criticized my conclusions for promoting stereotypes of women as passive and unassertive. On the contrary, while reflectivity is thoughtful, it's not passive in the common meaning—meek, vulnerable, inactive. I find the concept more akin to Weick's (1978) "spines of leadership." He argues that leadership requires complex, multifaceted people with a multitude of behavioral options that they can use in each situation. Only occasionally, he maintains, is directive, strongly asserted behavior the best of those options. Quality of action can become part of the bias for action held by administrators.

Additionally, I found the process and habit of reflection I came to value in administration valuable in other parts of life. But I regret to add that the transfer of this data-understanding-knowledge-action link automatically from professional and research settings to other settings didn't occur automatically. I am, instead, convinced with Dewey (1933) that, in order to maximize the benefits that this orientation can bring, constant renewal, practice, and habit reinforcement are helpful. On-going training and renewal will help both administrators and professors tune their reflective skills.

Notes

1. While acknowledging that it sometimes distracts from the intent of professional writing, I chose deliberately to write this paper in first person for several reasons. First, the use of the first person emphasizes the individual character of the process described in the paper. Second, it protects against the natural tendency to hide behind impersonal third person language. And third, I could think of no way to keep the paper in the proper perspective for myself without retaining a personal voice. I hope its readers find the choice of voice helpful rather than distracting, and I appreciate the willingness of the editors to allow me to retain it.

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Chapter 2

Reflections of a Practitioner in Academia

Diana G. Pounder

Introduction

When I was hired as a beginning Assistant Professor of Educational Administration, many friends and acquaintances jokingly referred to me as the "token female" in the department. Although I seldom felt like a token female, there were times that I wondered if I was instead, the "token practitioner." I often felt that my perceptions of the world of education as well as my perceptions of the goals of administrative preparation programs were different than those of my former colleagues, perhaps because their experiences were so different from mine. Most of my original colleagues had little, if any, professional experience in schools or in school administration. These differences in experiences and perception often caused me to feel like "the odd person out" in the department. I sometimes felt that my colleagues must believe that I was born the day my PhD was awarded, thus obliterating the contribution of all experiential learning from my "previous life" as a practicing administrator.

Although those initial years have increased my socialization to higher education, bringing my perceptions and priorities more in line with those of my former colleagues, I also occasionally feel a sense of loss—the loss of certain values, priorities, and concerns which may add a needed dimension to the preparation of school administrators. I sometimes sense that my voice as a former administrator is becoming weaker with time, partially due to my perception that in higher education my experiential knowledge as an administrator is devalued or discounted to a certain degree, and partially due to my perception of the demands of professorial work in academia. Before that voice and practitioner knowledge are totally lost, I want to commit some of my observations to paper. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is

to communicate my perceptions of certain dimensions of administrator preparation reform and the professorial role, as influenced by or played against memories from my prior administrative experience.

Skill Development in Preparation Programs

Memory: On my first day on the job as a middle school principal, Mrs. Simmons asked me whether I wanted the students to enter the southeast or the southwest door upon returning from the playground after lunch. I can remember wondering what possible difference it could make, and what motivated her to be concerned about that seemingly inconsequential routine. As interactions of that nature occurred with other teachers over time, I realized that some of the faculty had dramatically different needs for structure and routinization of children than did I, and that these needs often reflected deeply held beliefs about children, authority, and appropriate school environments.

Although I dealt with the overtly expressed concerns and behaviors of these teachers, I seldom openly acknowledged or confronted the philosophical and values differences that I was sensing. In retrospect, I believe that had I been able to discuss openly our "belief system" differences with these faculty members, we would have each had a greater understanding and appreciation for one another's role and contribution to the school. Perhaps we could have come to appreciate the richness of that diversity. Further, such openness may have reduced the underlying emotional tension that I'm sure we all sensed. Instead, we tended to "dance around" the more substantive issues—dealing only with concrete and sometimes superficial evidence of the underlying feelings, values, and philosophies we held.

I suspect that the reason I was uncomfortable with discussions of this sort was because I was uncomfortable expressing my own feelings and beliefs—either because I feared making myself too vulnerable or because I felt I couldn't effectively articulate my own philosophical perspective. Or, perhaps I felt inadequate to resolve the conflicting values and philosophies of a divergent group. Whatever the reason, I failed to seize a valuable opportunity to deal directly and openly with some important values and philosophical issues which had significant implications for the school.

Many programs are designed to address the cognitive development of students in traditional educational administration content areas. The specific cognitive skills (see Bloom et al., 1956) that receive most attention are knowledge and comprehension, and less frequently, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. Increasingly more attention is being paid to the development of higher order cognitive skills through simulations, case studies, and other problem solving and reflective learner activities. I

endorse these efforts and hope that these types of learning experiences will become more prevalent in administrator preparation programs.

Another type of skill development that I would like to see encouraged in administrative preparation programs is the affective development of prospective administrators. Krathwohl, Bloom, and Masia (1964) suggest that there are several levels of attitudes, interests, and/or personal involvement in the affective development of students. These include:

1. receiving - attracting the learner's attention;
2. responding - learner willing to reply or take action;
3. valuing - committing oneself to take an attitudinal position;
4. organization - making adjustment or decisions from among several alternatives;
5. characterization of a value complex - integrating one's beliefs, ideas, and attitudes into total philosophy.

Again, the higher order skills seem to demand more attention. Many of these affective skills could be developed through learning activities mentioned above, such as simulations, case studies, or other problem solving and reflective learner activities.

There may be some need for the addition of new course content as well, particularly course content not typically included in most educational administration programs. As many of the early leadership studies suggest, leader behavior may be viewed as two-dimensional—task oriented behavior and relational oriented behavior (Hoy & Miskel, 1982, pp. 226-235). Development of the latter dimension seems to be neglected in many formal academic preparation programs.

The memory described above of my early principalship experience reminds me that I often found myself hesitant in a decision making or problem situation due to the lack of clarification and expression of my own values, personality dispositions, or individual philosophy with respect to those of others. Knowledge of self and others may be as important to the development of effective administrators as is knowledge of administrative and organizational functions—especially in human service enterprises such as education. If that is the case, then courses which allow self-exploration and intra- and interpersonal skill development (e.g., counseling, communications, etc.) may be important additions to administrative preparation programs.

Further, the sequence of course content and learning activities should reflect the incremental development of students' cognitive and affective skills, as well as an integration of these skill areas. The total administrative preparation program should result in a Gestalt learning experience for the student, as opposed to a disjointed or non-integrated preparation experience.

Programs Relevant to the Job Demand of Administrators

Integrating Theory and Practice

Memory: I felt frustrated and inadequate every time I held a post-observation conference with Mr. Andrews. Although I felt fairly confident about my general appraisal of his classroom performance (which was relatively weak), I felt helpless to offer specific recommendations for how to improve that performance. What specific behaviors was he exhibiting or failing to exhibit that were causing the students' malaise or inattention in the classroom? Was it the lack of variety in his voice inflection? Was it too little use of appropriate visual aids or demonstrations? Was it his rather impersonal questioning strategy in the classroom, never calling a student by name? I could tell that there was a problem, but I had not learned any specific tools that could help me pinpoint the cause of the solution.

Most of us have heard practicing administrators complain that their graduate programs failed to prepare them for the demands of their roles in school administration. The theory versus practice debate often emerges in the context of these complaints. I, like many of you, am unwilling to engage in an either/or debate, but rather prefer to endorse a stance of integration between theoretical knowledge and practical knowledge. Having had one foot in each camp, I do not feel the priorities compete but rather are complementary. However, I am not sure that our work as professors adequately reflects this balance, although an appropriate linkage between theoretical and practical knowledge is through our roles as teachers and as researchers. For instance, as teachers, professors have the opportunity and, I believe, the responsibility to apply theoretical knowledge to problems of practice. This is not simply a matter of relating administrative "war stories" to students, but rather the ability to apply relevant theories to typical school administration concerns. For example, students must understand the constructs of Vroom's Expectancy theory, and see how school administrators can develop administrative policy and practice that will favorably influence expectancy and instrumentality to enhance the motivation of school personnel or students.

Some professors seem to demonstrate this concern and skill in their teaching, whereas others seem to minimize the importance of translating

theory to practice, arguing that their course content (e.g., philosophy of education or economics of education) does not lend itself well to application or that applying theoretical knowledge to problems of practice is the work of the students when they return to the field. There may even be a type of academic elitism that surfaces, suggesting that courses with more applied emphasis (e.g., school business administration or personnel administration) are somehow less rigorous or less academically substantial. Theoretical course content, void of practical application, does not necessarily reflect higher academic status of the course or its professor. I believe that being able to apply theoretical knowledge to problems of practice is largely a technique of instruction rather than a course-specific limitation.

Obviously, professors cannot prepare students for every kind of administrative problem across all administrative roles or contexts, let alone prescribe an appropriate resolution for each case. That is neither possible nor desirable. However, the ability to teach students how to use theory and research to guide problem solving in administrative circumstances enhances the job-relevancy of administrative course work.

Likewise, as researchers, professors have the flexibility and the responsibility to pursue lines of inquiry which have not only a theoretical relevance, but also practical implications. If a researcher cannot explain how his or her research can contribute to the improvement of practice, in the short-run or the long-run, directly or indirectly, then I question its contribution to the field. Often I have heard academicians criticize the research of doctoral students or colleagues for its weakness in advancing theory. Unfortunately, seldom is the same concern or standard held regarding the contribution of research to the improvement of practice. Educational administration is, after all, a professional discipline with a responsibility to contribute to the knowledge base of professionals in the field.

Clinical Experiences and Collaboration Between Universities and Schools

Memory: When doing my administrative internship in a small school district's central office, I periodically received a visit from the university's supervising faculty member. I can remember dreading those visits because he seemed to show little attention to or understanding of the responsibilities I was assuming, but rather seemed inordinately concerned about the daily log of activities I was keeping and the format of my project documentation.

Many administrator preparation programs require or recommend that students have some type of clinical experience or internship. Unfortunately, too few clinical experience programs are designed to contribute meaningfully to a student's preparation for administrative work. For instance, administrative interns in many preparation programs must choose their own

administrative placement and corresponding field supervisor with little help from a university coordinator. Students may be influenced largely by convenience factors and may give little consideration to the quality of internship experience associated with the placement or supervisor choice. At least part of the problem stems from the fact that we, the professors in the department, hold the intern accountable for fulfilling "the letter of the law" regarding the internship experience but give little attention to "the spirit of the law." Students may keep a log of activities or document a project they have completed, but many faculty spend little energy in assessing the worth or merit of those activities in terms of preparation experience. Further, little effort is made to reflect or relate those activities to prior academic or theoretical learning in the student's preparation program. The end result is often that the certification or degree requirement has been met, but the student is ill-prepared to confront the demands of administrative responsibilities, or, has little appreciation for the connection between formal academic preparation and "on-the-job" experience.

Perhaps both schools and universities need to recognize what they can and cannot do in terms of administrator preparation. Trite as the adage may be "One cannot be all things to all people." A similar sentiment was expressed by March (1974), "The university does some things badly. Such things it clearly should not do. It does other things well, but not well enough . . . . The university should attend primarily to activities where it has a distinctive competence" (p. 26). Universities cannot provide the richness and complexity of administrative experiences and responsibilities that are available in school settings. Neither can schools provide the opportunities for reflection and critical probing that are nurtured in an academic environment.

Maybe professors should recognize the limitations that we have and work in a more coordinated fashion with schools to carve out our areas of strength and responsibility, and to work cooperatively to provide an integrated and complete internship experience for students. Ideas for such efforts have been posited (e.g., LaCost & Pounder, 1987), and include such means as clinical professorships, reflective seminars, and full-time administrative internships. Unfortunately, little experimentation in designing these programs in conjuction with schools has occurred. Until such collaborative efforts occur, the needs of students, schools, or universities will not be adequately met. I believe that the summative effect of school and university efforts is desirable, but the synergistic effect of coordinated school and university efforts seems optimal.

Humanizing Leadership

Memory: John Connors was a fellow principal with whom I worked. I never greeted John with a "Hi, how are you?" that he did not respond with

a "Great—right next to excellent—it's almost scary!" I always admired his upbeat, good-humored response, but with time other behaviors made me wonder if he ever admitted to any vulnerabilities. Was he as "perfect" as he seemed—always portraying the image of the "strong administrator"—in charge, in control, and on top of everything. Sometimes he seemed more robot than human.

In spite of the fact that leadership has been described and defined in a variety of ways, there seems to be a mythology or folklore of leadership which persists. This mythology suggests a very narrow and inflexible definition of leadership to me. Words such as "strong," "rational," "powerful," and "in control" are often prevalent in discussions of leadership. Those who do not fit this stereotypic representation risk being discounted as capable leaders. Further, when a leader "slips" by exposing a human "weakness"—a display of emotion or some uncertainty in a problem situation—many seem quick to condemn or question the individual's leadership ability. There seems to be little tolerance for humanness in leaders—little acceptance of leaders as beings with human vulnerabilities, sensitivities, insecurities, imperfections, or fallibilities.

To a certain degree I believe we invite that intolerance when we perpetuate the stereotypic definition of leaders as all-knowing, all-powerful, non-emotive individuals. If administrators adopt a demi-god veneer, small wonder that many teachers and community members are often anxious to uncover the substance beneath the facade of "perfection"—to assess and criticize the flaws. Witness, for instance, the tendency of the news media to uncover fallibilities of presidential candidates or other public figures.

I must admit, I'm not sure how a myth is modified—perhaps to a certain degree through research and publication efforts. Somehow I suspect it has as much or more to do with how we talk about and envision leaders, and maybe even more, how we demonstrate our humanness in our day-to-day interactions with students, educators, and with one another. We may be able to modify the myth and establish different normative models of leaders through the way we treat and display humanistic leadership in our preparation program. As Bridges (1976) observes,

> A student works in a setting that stresses the virtue of rationality. When he enters the House of Intellect the student pays a hidden tuition; he renounces the right to emotional expression. Ideas, not feelings, are the currency of the realm. As a result, the student is unlikely to find himself in work situations which encourage him to express how he feels; his feelings are institutionally irrelevant as well as individually bothersome. How he manages his emotions is a private rather than a public matter.

To the degree that we can reveal our own humanness, and in fact, embrace our own humanness as an opportunity to be approachable and responsive to others, the image and definition of leadership may be broadened. Further, by our example and receptivity, our students may be granted the freedom to grow and express their own humanness. Perhaps these efforts may allow greater acceptance and tolerance for multi-dimensional, complex, and less than perfect leaders in the human development enterprise of education.

Summary

As stated earlier, this paper is not intended to be scientific or even objective in its approach. Further, many of the observations I have made are not unique but are shared by many of you (see Griffiths, Stout & Forsyth, 1988). However, as a friend and colleague so descriptively expressed, "I often feel like I am standing astride the backs of two diverging circus ponies—ACADEMIA and PRACTICE" (Bredeson, 1988). Perhaps I have tried only to reveal and reduce my own discomfort by bringing these animals in closer alignment, harnessing memories of my administrative experience to my perceptions of administrator preparation programs. In any case, I hope there continues to be a place for "practitioners" in academia, and that their voices are heard and valued as legitimate contributions to preparation program reform.

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Chapter 3

Reappraising Personal Experience in the Reform of Curriculum in Educational Administration

Paul V. Bredeson

After two and a half weeks in my new position as high school principal, I was beginning to see this new administrative role as one which was not only manageable but would be personally and professionally rewarding. The secretary buzzed me on the office telephone to tell me that a parent was there to discuss a personal matter. Affably I walked to the door, greeted the woman, and asked her to sit down. Relaxed and confident, I smiled and inquired how I could help her. Not the least bit hesitant, she told me that I had a serious problem. Over the next hour she revealed in graphic detail how the varsity football coach had recently raped her fifteen year old daughter. A new football season was scheduled to begin in one week. The incident and the experiences of dealing with all of the attendant administrative, personal, legal, and professional issues became part of this principal's administrative biography.

As John Dewey (1938) stated,

> As an individual passes from one situation to another, his world, his environment, expands or contracts. He does not find himself living in another world but in a different part or aspect of one and the same world. What he has learned in the way of knowledge and skill in one situation becomes an instrument of understanding and dealing effectively with situations which follow. The process goes on as life and learning continue. (p. 46)

The purpose of this paper is to examine the use of personal administrative experiences as a basis for thinking about and effecting curricular reform in

educational administration. The purposeful application of individual past experiences is valuable to the reform effort in that it taps a vital resource of individual knowledge and suggests a way of bridging the chasm between the worlds of practice and individual experiences, and theory. The way in which professors think about and make use of their own professional work experiences is at the very heart of the professoriate and their attempts to reform programs and practices in the preparation of school administrators. Attention to individual experiences is tied to conceptions of knowledge and learning and has implications for professors, for teaching practices, for program design, for student outcomes, and for educational administration as a field of study. The idea that experience is inextricably tied to learning and knowledge is not a new one. Over the centuries scholars have elaborated on the connections. In this century, John Dewey (1938) proposed that, "Education in order to accomplish its ends both for the individual learner and for society must be based upon experience—which is always the actual life-experience of some individual" (p. 89). Though Dewey's philosophy was articulated with younger learners in mind, his ideas have relevance for learners of any age and are clearly applicable to program reform and pedagogy in educational administration. Dewey contrasted traditional education and progressive education. Based on a set of assumptions and beliefs about learning, he characterized more traditional education as one which stressed that learning,

> means acquisition of what already is incorporated in books and in the heads of elders. Moreover, that which is taught is thought of, as essentially static. It is taught as a finished product, with little regard either to the ways in which it was originally built up or to changes that will surely occur in the future. (p. 19)

He contrasted this static conception of education with a philosophy of education characterized by the expression and cultivation of individuality, free activity, learning through experience, the acquisition of requisite skills as means "attaining ends which make direction vital appeal" (p. 19), and an acquaintance with present life and reality of a changing world. Based on this philosophy he stated,

> Now we have the problem of discovering the connection which actually exists *within* experience between the achievements of the past and issues of the present. We have the problem of ascertaining how acquaintance with the past may be translated into a potent instrumentality for dealing effectively with the future. (p. 23)

The notion of experience as a base upon which learning and subsequent knowledge is founded does not include just any idiosyncratic event that an

individual witnesses. The incident cited at the beginning of this paper would remain just that, the scenario described never had evolved beyond an anecdote of personal biography. Experience has the potential to contribute to further growth and learning but there is nothing intrinsic that would necessarily account for learning. As Dewey states,

> The belief that all genuine education comes through experience does not mean that all experiences are genuinely educative. Experience and education cannot be directly equated to each other. For some experiences are mis-educative. Any experience is mis-educative that has the effect of arresting or distorting the growth of further experience. (p. 25)

For Dewey the criteria for discriminating between those experiences which are worthwhile and those that are not are the principles of *continuity* and *interaction*. "The principle of *continuity* of experience means that every experience both takes up something from those which have gone before and modifies in some way the quality of those which come after" (p. 35). The key is whether or not the experience is interpreted in such a way that it is conducive to the opportunities for continuing growth in new direction. *Interaction*, the second principle, is the transaction which takes place between an individual and what constitutes internal and external environments during any one experience. "Continuity and interaction in their active union with each other provide the measure of the educative significance and value of an experience. They are, so to speak, the longitudinal and lateral aspects of experience" (p. 44). Based on the principles of continuity and interaction, the incident of having to deal with a serious charge of moral turpitude in the school provided the opportunity for action and reaction which were more than deft crisis management. The interaction with the internal and external environments supplied the ingredients for individual growth and learning by the principal as well as provided the opportunity for the principal subsequently to incorporate the event, its multiple facets and their resolution, into a framework for future reference and reflection.

That experience is a necessary but not a sufficient factor in individual learning and education suggests that another cognitive process is needed to mediate experiences in order for them to become educative and thereby useful in the future. Cell (1984) describes this mediating process as one of reflection. He states, "The more we understand how we learn from experience, the more responsibility we can assume for that learning. We can seek to modify or simply cut loose from situations which tend to distort or needlessly limit our learning" (p. 54). Cell describes how the ability to learn from personal experiences is useful because such learning is basic to problem solving, to maintaining and enriching relationships, to succeeding at new projects, to expanding new horizons and areas of experience, and to

helping to determine how much freedom and creativity we can achieve. "Our effectiveness in learning from experience will involve how we *prepare*, the *conditions* we encounter, and how we later assess or otherwise *reflect* on what we've learned" (p. 54). Cell defined three skills that individuals develop and use in learning from personal experiences: *generalization* (seeking out recurrent patterns in our experiences); *selection* (determining those things to which we will give our attention); and *interpretation* (organizing and recording the messages of our experience). "By these processes of generalizing, selecting and interpreting we gradually create and recreate a complex set of beliefs, knowledge, and evaluations of ourselves and our world and our interrelations with it" (p. 62).

Kolb (1984) and Jarvis (1987) describe learning as a process in which knowledge/learning is the transformation of experience. The notion of transformation is particularly important. As Jarvis states, "Only when people give meaning to their experience in a situation does it actually have meaning" (p. 166). Individual interpretation is crucial if meaning is to be attached to events and learning is to take place. However, people who are witness to the same event do not necessarily attach the same meaning to it. Because individual interpretation rests upon prior knowledge and experiences, any one event is open to as many interpretations and meaningful learning outcomes as there are individuals. The principal and the parent likely attached varying interpretations and meanings to the critical incident and to subsequent events as they unfolded. "The fact is that as a result of previous learning experiences people build up a stock of knowledge, biographically based, which is useful to their performance" (p. 167). As Jarvis suggests, these individual stocks of knowledge are the bases for responses to environmental factors. Such responses over time become learned ones and are reinforced. So long as the environment is fairly stable and predictable, such learned responses are not problematic; however, with dynamic and uncertain environments, such automatic and routinized responses may become dysfunctional. The task for principals or any administrators is to check their set(s) of learned responses for situational validity. Set responses to environmental demands are functional in that these patterns of behavior give seasoned professionals a sense of stability in complex and uncertain environments. Given that they have limited capacities to respond to environmental factors that surround them, administrators give purposefully selective attention to particular events in their work life, on the dysfunctional side, administrators must be sure that these set responses do not limit or blind them to new realities.

Since everyday life experiences may be only reinforcements to already habitualized behaviors, not all experiences have the potential for further growth and learning.

> Experience in the socio-cultural milieu of everyday acts is a reinforcement to the stock of knowledge already held. However, this re-inforcement does not add to the stock of knowledge, so that while the experience is sub-consciously meaningful, it is not a learning experience and the only growth that will probably have occurred will relate to an increase in confidence to perform similar actions in the future. (p. 167)

This is akin to the bromide that a person with a record of ten years of experience in a job may really have had only one year of experience repeated ten times. For experiences to become meaningful, and to make them more than reinforcements of patterned behaviors and mere increases in confidence, there is a need for reflection. People must think about particular experiences, reflect upon them, and seek out the opinions and reactions of others to them.

Usher (1985) gives further support to the processes of reflection as mediators of individual experiences. "Experience may be the raw material but it has to be processed through reflection before it can emerge as learning" (p. 60-61). What becomes critical for professors of educational administration is how to provide students with the skills to articulate and reflect on their individual experiences. The use of experience, however, whether by individuals or by teachers in their instructional strategies is not without its limitations and problems. Usher warns that since not all experiences are educative, the relationship between experience and learning is problematic. He cites one incident in which, "A teaching situation designed to facilitate learning from experience became one where students not only failed to take responsibility for their own learning but ultimately rejected the process of learning from experience as trivial and irrelevant" (p. 63). Based on his teaching, he identified three common problems in the use of experience as a basis for teaching: (1) "not all experience can be a basis from which learning can be derived, learning must therefore involve a selection from experience; (2) reflection is necessary in the processing of experience but does not happen spontaneously; (3) experience must have personal meaning but needs to have features to which others can relate their own experience and from which scientifically as well as personally valid generalizations can be made" (p. 63).

The notion that students and professors in educational administration should be reflective practitioners is not a new one. Willower (1964) noted that "Professors and practitioners of educational administration ought to be reflective generalists, ready and able to work with ideas and to apply them in concrete situations" (p. 100). He asserted that both practitioners and professors "should have the opportunity to invent concepts and work out original hypotheses as well as learn about existing concepts and theories. This means that they need to learn to *theorize*`and that is something more

than the study of various theories. Reflective methods should be cultivated and internalized. This is crucial because knowledge changes, because there is more of it than any one person can assimilate, and because situations are ultimately unique requiring above everything else a probing, reflective mind that can try out and experiment with a variety of problem solutions" (p. 100). Willower concludes by suggesting that practitioners and professors ought to be in much closer congruence and that this relationship must be honest and genuine in which professors and practitioners are co-equals in the reflective application of theory to practice.

The place of personal experience in the curriculum for preparing school administrators has often been framed as the perennial argument about the relationship of formal theory to everyday practice. One of the major dilemmas facing a field in which professors are training students to become practitioners is to integrate theory and practice in such a way that they are complementary, not oppositional. To Schwab (1964), "Abstract theories are like pyramidal tents. The more ground they try to cover, the taller, that is the more abstract, they must be; and the more abstract they are, the more viciously abstract they are likely to be" (p. 61). This is particularly problematic when administrators must spend their work life confronting very specific problems requiring particular solutions not generalizable types of application. Thus, Schwab argues that

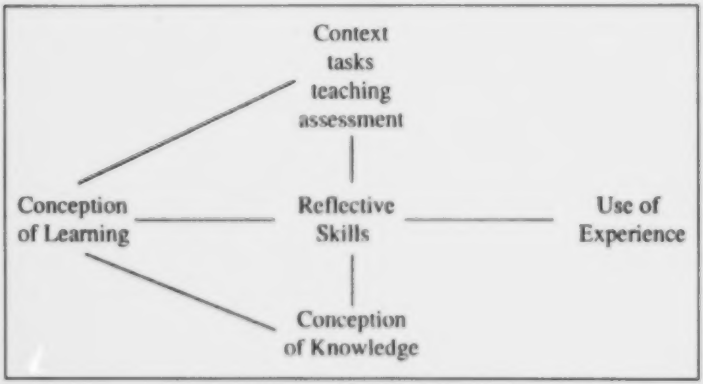
> If the professor of educational administration is concerned with the improvement of educational administration and the training of administrators; if defensible administration arises from a subtle, complex interaction of theory and practice on one another; if the experience of practice can be undergone and the interaction instituted only in the act of practice; then the essential professor of educational administration is one who has practiced; he is a professing educational administrator. Clearly, he is not any educational administrator who has practiced but one who has the theoretical resources as well and has brought his theory and his practice into interaction with one another. (p. 67)

The key concern of this paper is how to convince professors themselves, and then in turn their students, that individual experiences and biographies have worth beyond the anecdotal illumination of extant theories in educational administration. These experiences transformed through reflection into meaningful understandings of professional work life in schools are important resources for legitimating the vast constellations of individual stocks of knowledge that students bring to their preparation programs and for greatly enhancing teaching and learning in educational administration programs. Experience mediated by the development of reflective skills in professors, students, and practitioners is a primary mechanism for building the collaborative linkages between professors and practitioners and for instituting meaningful reform in educational administration programs.

Adapting a model first presented by Usher (1985), Figure 1 depicts various factors which influence the use of individual experiences as building blocks for learning and continued growth. The figure is also a conceptual organizer for the remainder of this paper.

Drawing upon the work of learning theorists, Usher (1985) provides a dichotomous schemata which is useful in the examination of the role of personal administrative experiences in guiding reform efforts in educational administration. The interrelationships among the various components have implications for how individual experiences would be interpreted and used, what pedagogical strategies would be employed to prepare school administrators, and what student outcomes are expected.

Figure 1



The first factor is the *conception of learning* itself. At the extremes of the learning continuum described by Usher, is one conception which holds that learning is a *passive reproductive process* for the learner emphasizing the acquisition of a specified body of knowledge. Students are required to reproduce any or all of this acquired knowledge of appropriate times, such as on exams and sundry other performance measures. At the other end of the learning continuum, learning tasks are seen as both *active and interactive (thematised)* emphasizing reflection and awareness of both the learning process as well as the intended products of learning. A professor's *conception of knowledge* is tightly coupled to a personal view of learning. A *dualistic* conception of knowledge emphasizes a view that things are either 'right' or 'wrong' and where the student looks to the superiority and authority of the teacher in determining what items fall into which category. From a *perspective dependent* view, knowledge is not seen as an absolute

but is viewed as being much more fluid and dependent on the socio-cultural-temporal world from which it emerges.

Usher (1985) argues that conceptions of learning and knowledge account for dramatically different views regarding the place of personal experience in the learning enterprise. Using the incident described at the beginning of this paper, the reproductive/dualistic perspective might tempt one to use this scenario as an attention getting example to reinforce established formal theories of conflict resolution, decision making, or even moral leadership. From the most simplistic view, this incident would be nothing more than an interesting anecdotal footnote of one person's administrative experiences with little effort given to developing any particular meaningfulness to the individual or educative significance for continued growth and learning. Played against more formal theory, if the incident could not be reconciled with existing theoretical explanations of organizational life, the scenario would likely be considered an outlier of sorts and would be devalued in terms of its purposefulness for this principal in further studies of formal knowledge in educational administration. Usher would categorize this approach to using the incident a "surface" or "anecdotal" one. From the thematised/perspective dependent view, "The raw material of thematised learning is experience, particularly the experience of learning which itself becomes a conscious object of reflection" (Usher, 1985, p. 66). The key is the ability to use reflective skills to examine the incident and to thereby use it productively. This view of learning and knowledge holds that personal knowledge gained by this principal in the scenario is no less valuable than sundry theoretical abstractions: It is simply a different knowledge perspective. Usher(1986) describes this as "productive" or "deep approach" to using experience.

> Students must start from their own learning in order to describe and collectively confront their experiences. From this, they can first become more aware of their own conceptions of learning and knowledge and then develop these conceptions through theories which integrate personal and codified knowledge of the relationship between themselves, their learning, and their environment. (p. 33)

Based on conceptualizations of learning and knowledge, the professor must operationalize these beliefs through pedagogy. As Dewey (1938) asserted, "Unless experience is so conceived that the result is a plan for deciding upon subject-matter, upon methods of instruction and discipline, and upon material equipment and social organization of the school, it is wholly air" (p. 28). So professors of educational administration must be reflective on their own past administrative experiences as well as upon those of students. The notion that individual past experiences of professors is a base for building the vitally important collaborative linkages between

practitioners and professors rests in the belief that unless professors, who are directing the formal training of administrators, can reflect upon their own experiences they will not be able to model and coach their students in productive approaches for using their experiences for continued growth and learning. "In starting from one's own learning and proceeding experientially, students and teachers can move to a new conception of *experience* which then makes it possible within some areas for experience to be used productively as a resource for learning" (p. 34).

Usher (1987) cites three basic problems when developing curriculum for adults based on the incorporation of individual experiences. These are *relevance* (making sure the content relates to the practice of student), *rigor* (making sure that the content of instruction relates to the world of formal theory), and *congruence* (instructional strategies which are appropriate to the content, meet the demands of relevance or rigor, and model the behaviors/end-products toward which the curriculum is directed). To be sure, most professors of any discipline would be able to muster enough of an argument to say that their current programs and instructional strategies do meet the standards of relevance, rigor, and congruence. Most of the current programs in educational administration meet these criteria to some degree. The degree to which programs in educational administration address these perennial problems is the essence of intellectual and professional dynamism in a field seeking to make meaningful curricular reforms. A fundamental issue then is, what are the intended outcomes of a program in educational administration? Though each program would tailor its curriculum to its unique context and clientele, one program outcomes for training professional practitioners would transcend contextual boundaries, that is, the training and development of life long learners who are reflective practitioners.

Usher (1986) describes this program outcome as a reflective problematizing process in which both students and teachers work jointly. Emerging from this process are important by-products. Students learn to assume responsibility for their own learning and thereby begin to trust themselves, their individual stocks of knowledge, and to make productive use of their experiences rather than simply recalling unrelated and devalued anecdotal events. As students begin to assume greater control over and responsibility for their learning, they become active participants in helping to determine content relevance, rigor, and congruence. The sharing of responsibility for the teaching-learning process has major implications for professors of educational administration, their pedagogical practices, and for students. Identifying individual needs, defining focus areas for study, and determining instructional strategies which most effectively match student needs with desired program outcomes are examples of teaching-learning collaborative work between students and professors. Finally, the

reflexive process highlights the central importance of reflection as a learned and practiced skill which facilitates the linking of experience to individual learning and, ultimately, to informed practice.

Thus, how different would the curriculum in educational administration programs across the nation be? Even with a clearer sense of intended outcomes of student behaviors emphasizing reflective skills, the result would not be one in which programs were constrained by an overly prescriptive and rigidly defined curriculum. The richness of individual program characteristics, clientele, faculty, and other salient socio-cultural temporal factors would permit a "thousand flowers to bloom."

Educational administration programs designed to incorporate the richness of individual experiences in a reflexive/problematizing instructional process have major implications for professors. As with any call for substantive reform, changes will be resisted because such re-thinking and re-focusing require great expenditures of psychic and physical energies and are accompanied by risks within the larger academic community. Accustomed to set curriculum, teaching loads, and primarily direct delivery instructional modes(lecturing), the changes inspired by reflexive problematizing are very demanding. Faculty members would be asked to re-think and re-evaluate their own conceptions of learning, knowledge and the efficacy of their behaviors in classrooms as well as throughout the graduate studies program. Faculty would need to recommit themselves to helping students be reflective students of educational administration and reflective practitioners who will then exercise similar influence as they practice their administrative crafts. Some professors will argue that the changes implicit in a reflective problematizing approach will come at the expense of research and scholarship; however, research and scholarly activity in other areas of the university community do not pale simply because real problems in health, engineering or business guide the preparation of professionals through inquiry, advising, and teaching. As Jarvis (1987) states, "Reflection is an essential phase in the learning process whereby people explore their experiences in a conscious manner in order to lead to a new understanding and, perhaps, a new behavior" (p. 168). In such a process both students and professors are engaged in the thoughtful exploration and examination of past experiences, in the reassessment of conceptions of learning and knowledge, and in various levels of reflection in which each "can surface and criticize the tacit understandings that have grown up around the repetitive experiences of a specialized practice and can make new sense of the situations of uncertainty or uniqueness which he may allow himself to experience (Schön, 1983, p. 61).

Mezirow (1981) developed a typology of levels of reflectivity. He described seven levels of reflection in which individuals may engage.

These levels suggest some interesting possibilities for training programs in educational administration as well as for the expansion of possibilities to enhance the skills of practicing administrators. The first four levels are those which are actual conscious acts of reflection. The remaining three are characterized as levels of critical consciousness. 1) *reflectivity*—awareness of specific perceptions, meanings, and/or behaviors; 2) *affective reflectivity*—awareness of how the individual feels about what is being perceived, through or acted upon; 3) *discriminant reflectivity*—the ability to assess the efficacy of perception, thought, and habit of doing things; 4) *judgmental reflectivity*—making and becoming aware of values and judgments made; 5) *conceptual reflectivity*—assessing the extent to which the concept(s) employed for understanding and judgment are adequate; 6) *psychic reflectivity*—recognition of one's habit of making percipient judgment on the basis of limited information; and 7) *theoretical reflectivity*—awareness of why one set of perspectives is more or less adequate to explain personal experience. As Jarvis (1987) concludes,

> Not only do individuals bring unique stock of knowledge to the process of reflection, each may also reflect upon their (sic) experience at one or more different levels, so that the reflective process is itself personal, private, and individual. Therefore, the meaning that people give to their experience is quite subjective and knowledge is created out of experience by a synthesis of previous knowledge and perception of their present experience. Meaning is, therefore, a subjective interpretation of experience, giving special significance to past events. (p. 169)

The use of past administrative experiences by professors is just one aspect of the argument for reforming curriculum in educational administration. Personal biography and experience are important sources of knowledge with the potential to foster continued growth and to enhance reflective skills of professors, students in educational administration programs, and practitioners. If leadership is about the exercise of influence, then professors have a unique opportunity to demonstrate through their own instructional and advisory behaviors how individual students can capitalize on and put to productive use their unique experiences and stocks of knowledge. This does not mean all experiences. Clearly, some experiences do not contribute to further learning and growth nor do they meet the standards of relevance, rigor, and congruence, the essential criteria for inclusion in educational administration curricula. Some content specialities and areas of study within educational administration are less amenable to the direct application of individual experiences that students and professors bring with them. Personally, however, I do not believe that any area of study in educational administration is completely impervious to instructional

approaches which seek to integrate experience. Nevertheless, the challenge for professors is to make determinations for teaching and learning which help realize the intended outcomes of preparing school leaders who have technical, conceptual, and human skills as well as the capacity to use those skills reflectively in action and about their actions. Such an outcome is unlikely though in programs dominated by 30 to 90 graduate credit hours of lecture.

The emphasis in this paper has been on how professors might use personal administrative experiences as a valuable teaching-learning resource. This emphasis is predicated on the belief that if professors have learned how to use reflective skills to transform past experiences into richer understandings and guides to informed practice, then those very skills and behaviors can be modeled through instruction, advising, and clinical contacts with students. Rather than didactically emphasizing that students need to be reflective practitioners, professors can model, coach and lead the way to more thoughtful, humane, and reflective leadership. This emphasis also helps address head-on the theory-practice chasm that perennially plagues students and professors. As Shapiro (1987) suggests, "Theory and practice are separate but inseparable, for the administrative ensemble is the relationships between theory and practice. The role of theory is not to indicate what administrators should do, but rather to indicate what administrators must respond to in order to achieve goals. Theory serves to define problems. Thus, in the artificial science model, practice is not theory based but is "theory responsive" (p. 13).

Finally, emphasis on the incorporation of experience into educational administration curricula helps bridge another critical gap between professors of school administration and practicing administrators. The use of personal experiences and the experiences of students offers the opportunity for professors to reconnect themselves with their field. In a recent assessment of preparation programs and the professoriate in educational administration, Shibles (1988) pointed out that, "Professors often lack the ability to connect research and current developments to practice and sometimes have no administrative or school experience" (p. 7). Another researcher describes a more stinging indictment of the professoriate in educational administration from the perspective of practicing principals. In a survey of school principals, Lane (1988) reported that individual personal experience was the highest rated support source for all principals whether in schools of identified excellence or across all schools. Selected from a list of 25 possible other sources of support in their work life, principals ranked college professors 20th. Lane points out the critical importance for collaboration as a means for re-connecting professors to their field of practice as well as for incorporating approaches for using personal experi-

ence in the curricula and pedagogy of programs in educational administration. Unless professors choose to relegate themselves to the eternal role of spectators rather than players and professors of practice, collaboration with colleagues in schools is imperative.

As Dewey (1938) concluded, "At every level there is an expanding development of experience if experience is educative in effect. Consequently, whatever the level of experience, we have no choice but either to operate in accord with the pattern it provides or else to neglect the place of intelligence in the development and control of a living and moving experience" (p. 88). Those educational administration faculty who have served as school administrators are in a unique and advantageous position in leading curricular reforms described in this paper. Having to deal with their own base of experience as one source of knowledge about school leadership helps to develop reflective skills that can then be modeled and shared with students. Professors who exercise the opportunities to tap into the richness of experience have a grounded base of real administrative experiences for establishing the collaborative linkages among practitioners and professors and for designing educational administration programs which are relevant, rigorous, congruent, and visionary.

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Chapter 4

Career Assessment as a Guide to Administrator Preparation and Evaluation

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Faculty members of the Department of Educational Administration and Supervision at Valdosta State College (Georgia) have been developing and testing a career assessment instrument which deals with student perception of the importance of selected personal and professional factors in securing and succeeding in administrative positions. The instrument also includes the performance and knowledge factors in a newly-created Leadership Performance Assessment Instrument and a Teacher Certification Test (Georgia Department of Education, 1988a) for school administrators. The latter two instruments are sponsored by the State of Georgia and will be mandated components of the certification and evaluation processes for administrators. This ongoing research has revealed changes in the relative importance of certain assessment factors in securing and succeeding in a job. Research results to date suggest further refinement of the career assessment instrument and the need for a continuing examination of how well these assessment factors are or should be addressed in order to improve administrator preparation programs.

Introduction

Faculty members of the Department of Educational Administration and Supervision at Valdosta State College (Georgia) have developed and tested a career assessment instrument on student perception of selected personal and professional factors in securing and succeeding in administrative positions. This career assessment instrument includes the knowledge and performance factors in the current Teacher Certification Test (Georgia

Department of Education, 1988b). Sponsored by the State of Georgia and a mandated component of the certification and evaluation processes for administrators, the TCT is a state response to a nationwide climate of accountability which insists on educational programs designed to reflect competency-based learning expectations and to achieve explicitly stated behavioral objectives.

Statement of the Problem

Career assessment may serve as a guide to administrator preparation and evaluation. The problem described in this paper lies in the development of a valid career assessment instrument including factors important to securing and succeeding in administrative positions. Such an instrument could benefit both students who are aspiring administrators and their faculty advisors. Students would use the instrument as a self assessment to help develop a plan of action for additional personal, professional, and academic experiences. The faculty as a whole would then have the data from students to expand practical bases for program design decisions, helping to bridge the theory-practice gap. The department would be in a position to evaluate and upgrade its administrator preparation program, benefiting all students and contributing to an improved leadership pool for area schools.

Purpose of the Study

The specific purposes of this study were to:

1. identify factors related to securing and succeeding in administration positions;
2. rank the importance of factors related to securing an administrative position;
3. rank the importance of factors related to succeeding in an administrative position;
4. compare the difference in importance between the factors related to securing and succeeding in administrative positions;
5. validate a career assessment instrument based on these factors; and
6. draw implications for student career planning and administrator preparation program evaluation.

Origin and Development of the Study

The study began when a group of aspiring female educational administrators at Lehigh University in eastern Pennsylvania interviewed

experienced persons to identify factors related to securing and succeeding in administrative positions. The case study method was used to summarize and analyze results from questions concerning how to get the job, job responsibilities, problems to anticipate, and other professionally relevant information. Case study analysis resulted in the compilation of a tentative checklist of 29 factors considered to be important in both securing and succeeding in administrative positions. The aspiring administrators then used the checklist as the basis for a written MyCAP, My Career Action Plan, which outlined their career goals, strengths, and weaknesses, and their plans for personal and professional growth (Wylie, 1981).

Subsequent research was conducted with a group of experienced administrators enrolled in a leadership seminar and cooperative Georgia State University/Valdosta State College doctoral program. This research sought to validate the 29 original factors with a different population and to identify possible additional factors. Respondents confirmed the factors as important, and write-in comments suggested a major shift in importance among the 29 factors once administrators secured a position. Some factors ranked higher in securing a position while others ranked higher in succeeding in the position. Preliminary findings also suggested a significantly high ranking for "knowledge of administrative functions" and "leadership skills." No new factors were added, however, as a result of this research.

Since knowledge and competence factors had been incorporated by the State of Georgia into a mandated teacher certification test for administrators and a leadership performance assessment instrument, research was undertaken to pilot test the addition of these factors to the original core of 29 in an expanded MyCAP instrument. Again, a shift in factor rankings from "securing" to "succeeding" in an administrative position was apparent along with indications of significance for specific knowledge and competence factors (Wylie & Michael, 1986; Wylie, Michael & Rowe, 1986). At this point, the researchers conducted the present study using an expanded pool of subjects representative of typical EAS majors.

Procedures

The study involved 67 students enrolled in the department's two-course practicum sequence in the education specialist degree program. This sequence is generally reserved for the education specialist students, but occasionally master's level students are enrolled. In addition, the majority of the students in the specialist program hold entry-level administrative positions and are completing their program of study to satisfy state certification requirements. Most of the subjects in this study were pursuing the specialist degree or leadership certification for their current specialist

degree in another field (86.5%), and were practicing administrators (43.3%). Half of these subjects (50.7%) had 6-15 years of teaching experience and the majority 10 years or less of administrative experience (58.2%). Additionally, 50.7% of the subjects were male, and almost half (49.3%) were less than 40 years of age. These data reflect the general composition of the department's program enrollment and have remained relatively stable through the various administrations of the MyCAP instrument.

Table 1. Demographic Characteristics of Respondents (N=67)

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	34	50.7
Female	27	40.3
(No response)	(6)	(9.0)
Age	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Ages 26-40	33	49.3
Ages 41-55	28	41.8
(No response)	(5)	(7.5)
Educational Level	**Frequency**	**Percent**
BS/BA	3	4.5
MA/MEd	47	70.1
EdS	11	16.4
(No response)	(6)	(9.0)
Current Professional Position	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Higher Ed.	7	10.4
Supt./Asst. Supt.	3	4.5
Director	2	3.0
Supervisor	3	4.5
HS Prin./Asst. Prin.	8	11.9
JH-MS Prin./Asst. Prin.	5	7.5
Elem. Sch. Prin./Asst.	8	11.9
Other	20	29.9
(No response)	(11)	(16.4)
Years of Teaching Experience	**Frequency**	**Percent**
1-5	4	6.0
6-10 Years	21	31.3
11-15 Years	13	19.4
16-20 Years	11	16.4
21-25 Years	7	10.4
26-30 Years	3	4.5
(No response)	(8)	(11.9)
Years of Administrative Experience	**Frequency**	**Percent**
1-5	30	44.8
6-10 Years	9	13.4
11-15 Years	4	6.0
16-20 Years	3	4.5
26-30 Years	1	1.5
(No response)	(20)	(29.9)

The subjects were administered the instrument in 1987 in their initial practicum class devoted to organization/logistical matters. The students were provided a brief background of the development of the instrument, along with a review of its purposes for personal program planning and for departmental program research and planning. They were then instructed to rate each of the 8 demographic items and 62 factors comprising the original core of 29 with 33 competency factors added. (These 62 factors are listed in Table 2.) The factors were rated twice by the respondents using a 6-point scale ranging from 0 ("Does not apply") and 1 ("Unimportant") to 5 ("Extremely important"). The first rating was for the perception of how important these factors were in obtaining an administrative position, and the second rating was for importance in succeeding in the position. Students who did not hold administrative positions were instructed to project what they thought the case would be for them in future securing and succeeding in a position.

Students were given both individual and group feedback approximately one month after completing the instrument. This feedback took the form of individual conferences with all students to discuss their perceptions of the career factors as related to their current administrative position, their practicum experience, and the average responses of the total group. Group feedback was accomplished through the presentation of results of the practicum class and a discussion of implications. The data from the instruments were analyzed through the Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences (PC+ version). Means for both sets of position factors (securing, succeeding) were also compared through the *t* test for paired cases. While the two sets of factors were not administered on separate occasions, they were treated as if they were to provide a different view of the data. Furthermore, the rankings of these factors were computed for both "securing" and "succeeding" and then compared in terms of their changes.

Results

Because the analysis of 62 items rated on two scales each and eight demographic items is quite tedious and its presentation cumbersome, the presentation of the data in this paper is limited to an overview of the means, the rankings, and the differences between "securing" and "succeeding" factors. Special attention is paid to the strong items or the most dramatic differences between the two sets of scores and ranks.

The descriptive statistics for the items are presented in Table 2, along with the *t* test results of a comparison of the mean of each item for "securing" with the mean of the item for "succeeding." As shown in Table 2, all items for both"securing" and "succeeding" were rated as important or greater.

What is interesting to note is the ranking of each item and how that ranking differed between the two sets of data. This change in rank ranged from a drop of 57 places for one item (recommendations) to a rise of 35 places for another (knowledge of administrative functions).

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics and t test Notations for MyCAP Items

ITEM	Secure Rank	Secure Mean	Succeed Rank	Succeed Mean	Rank Change	Mean Change
Original 29 Factors						
Teaching Experience*	17	4.1970	45	4.0758	-28.00	-.12
Administrative Experience*	54	3.6818	45	4.0758	9.00	.39
Other Leadership Experience	51	3.7424	49	4.0152	2.00	.27
Masters Degree	15	4.2090	50	3.9851	-35.00	-.22
Administrative Certification	35	4.0000	51	3.9531	-16.00	-.05
Specialist Degree	49	3.7667	60	3.6167	-11.00	-.15
Doctorate	61	3.3333	62	3.2407	-1.00	-.09
Conference Meetings*	62	3.2813	55	3.8125	7.00	.53
Credentials*	20	4.1667	58	3.6818	-38.00	-.48
Recommendations*	4	4.4030	61	3.5522	-57.00	-.85
Visibility	4	4.4030	44	4.1493	-40.00	-.25
Family Support*	31	4.0615	33	4.4615	-2.00	.40
Mentor(s)	41	3.8906	53	3.8750	-12.00	-.02
Role Model(s)	55	3.6719	54	3.8281	1.00	.16
Network, Contacts	20	4.1667	52	3.9394	-32.00	-.23
Mobility	39	3.9385	57	3.7231	-18.00	-.22
Health*	9	4.2836	38	4.4179	-29.00	.13
Energy*	13	4.2388	21	4.5821	-8.00	.34
Appearance	18	4.1940	47	4.0756	-29.00	-.12

Table 2 cont'd

Stress Tolerance*	39	4.0896	5	4.7910	34.00	.70
Knowledge of Career Options	46	3.8182	59	3.6364	-13.00	-.18
Short Term Career Plan	50	3.7576	56	3.7727	-6.00	.02
Long-Term Career Plan	35	4.0000	48	4.0299	-13.00	.03
Professional Values*	10	4.2687	25	4.5373	-15.00	.20
Personal Assessment*	12	4.2537	35	4.4478	-23.00	.19
Applying Knowledge To Job*	29	4.0746	10	4.7015	19.00	.63
Knowledge of Administrative Functions*	44	3.8333	9	4.7121	35.00	.88
Leadership Skills*	8	4.3030	3	4.8485	5.00	.55
Professional Attitudes*	3	4.4627	10	4.7015	-7.00	.24
LPAI and TCT Factors						
Knowledge of:						
Curriculum Goals & Instructional Objectives*	60	3.5455	39	4.4091	21.00	.86
Curriculum Congruence & Organization*	58	3.6061	40	4.3636	18.00	.76
Instructional Resources*	56	3.6667	43	4.2273	13.00	.56
Techniques of Assessing Student Progress*	52	3.7164	42	4.2985	10.00	.58
Curriculum Evaluation*	57	3.6615	23	4.5692	34.00	.91

Table 2 cont'd

Staff Designation/ Utilization*	59	3.5909	27	4.5303	32.00	.94
Performance Assessment*	48	3.7761	30	4.4925	18.00	.72
Ability to:						
Convey/Set High Expectations*	23	4.1493	16	4.6418	7.00	.49
Set Realistic Goals*	27	4.0896	18	4.6269	9.00	.54
Maintain Time-on-task*	32	4.0606	19	4.5909	13.00	.53
Provide an Orderly Environment*	33	4.0152	24	4.5606	9.00	.55
Use Student Assessment Data*	44	3.8333	41	4.3333	3.00	.50
Provide Praise & Recognition*	47	3.7879	19	4.5909	28.00	.80
Use Improvement Suggestions*	37	3.9552	28	4.5224	9.00	.57
Prepare for & Implement Change*	34	4.0149	21	4.5821	13.00	.57
Assist & Coach Staff*	43	3.8594	26	4.5313	17.00	.67
Provide Staff Development & Growth Activities*	53	3.7077	33	4.4615	20.00	.75
Manage Time*	29	4.0746	6	4.7761	23.00	.70
Resolve Unanticipated Problems*	25	4.1364	14	4.6818	11.00	.55
Resolve Conflicts & Disagreements*	22	4.1515	17	4.6364	5.00	.48

Table 2 cont'd

Conduct Group Meetings*	38	3.9394	37	4.4242	1.00	.48
Manage Fiscal & Material Resources*	42	3.8788	32	4.4697	10.00	.59
Manage Facilities*	40	3.8939	36	4.4394	4.00	.55
Oral Communication Within the Work Setting*	7	4.3433	2	4.8657	5.00	.52
Written Communication Within the Work Setting	15	4.2090	7	4.7313	8.00	.52
Oral Communication Within the Community*	23	4.1493	10	4.7015	13.00	.55
Written Communication Within the Community*	26	4.1343	13	4.6866	13.00	.55
Oral Communication With External Professionals*	18	4.1940	31	4.4776	-13.00	.28
Written Communication With External Professionals*	10	4.2687	28	4.5224	-18.00	.25
Characteristics:						
Respect*	6	4.3731	7	4.7313	-1.00	.36
Sensitivity*	13	4.2388	15	4.6567	-2.00	.42
Self Confidence*	1	4.5373	1	4.8806	0.0	.34
Receptivity*	2	4.4925	4	4.8358	-2.00	.34

*Statistically significant difference ($p<.05$) between the mean for securing and the mean for succeeding.

Table 3 presents the tope ten rankings for "securing the position" as compared to the top ten rankings for "succeeding in the position." As indicated in this table, self confidence, oral communication within the worksetting and leadership skills ranked high on both tests, items such as professional attitudes, visibility and health were replaced by stress toler-

ance, time management and written communication within the work setting in the top ten after the job has been secured.

Table 3. Top Ranking Items

Rank	Securing a Position	Succeeding in a Position
1	Self Confidence	Self Confidence
2	Receptivity	Oral Communication in the Work Setting
3	Professional Attitudes	Leadership Skills
4	Recommendations	Receptivity
5	Visibility	Stress Tolerance
6	Respect	Time Management
7	Oral Communication in the Work Setting	Written Communication in the Work Setting
8	Leadership Skills	Respect
9	Health	Knowledge of Administrative Functions
10	Professional Values	Applying Knowledge to the Job Written Communication with External Professionals

Another way to examine the data is through an analysis of the largest positive and negative ranking changes from securing a position to succeeding in one. Table 4 presents the items which had the largest increase in ranking by means and Table 5 presents the ten with the largest decrease. Similar to the comparison of the rankings of securing and succeeding items, the largest rise in ranking is foundfor those items which are most directly related to the knowledge and skill requirements of an administrative position (e.g., stess tolerance, time management, curriculum evaluation, performance assessment). Those items with the largest drop in ranking from securing to succeeding are those items which are critical for obtaining any position, but generally fade in importance as an individual becomes established in a position and is subsequently deemed successful based on performance as opposed to activities necessary for obtaining the job.

Table 4. Items with the Largest Increases in Ranking

ITEM	Secure Rank	Secure Mean	Succeed Rank	Succeed Mean	Rank Change	Mean Change
Knowledge of Administrative Functions	44	3.8333	9	4.7121	35.00	.88
Curriculum Evaluation	57	3.6615	23	4.5692	34.00	.91
Stress Tolerance	39	4.0896	5	4.7910	34.00	.70
Staff Designation/ Utilization	59	3.5909	27	4.5303	32.00	.94
Provide Praise & Recognition	47	3.7879	19	4.5909	28.00	.80
Manage Time	29	4.0746	6	4.7761	23.00	.70
Curriculum Goals & Instructional Objectives	60	3.5455	39	4.4091	21.00	.86
Provide Staff Development & Growth Activities	53	3.7077	33	4.4615	20.00	.75
Applying Knowledge To Job	29	4.0746	10	4.7015	19.00	.63
Curriculum Congruence & Organization	58	3.6061	40	4.3636	18.00	.76
Performance Assessment	48	3.7761	30	4.4925	18.00	.72

Table 5. Items with the Largest Decreases in Ranking

ITEM	Secure Rank	Secure Mean	Succeed Rank	Succeed Mean	Rank Change	Mean Change
Recommendations	4	4.4030	61	3.5222	-57.00	-.85
Visibility	4	4.4030	44	4.1494	-40.00	-.25
Credentials	20	4.1667	58	3.6818	-38.00	-.48
Masters Degree	15	4.2090	50	3.9851	-35.00	-.22
Network. Contacts	20	4.1667	52	3.9394	-32.00	-.23
Health	9	4.2836	38	4.4179	-29.00	.13
Appearance	18	4.1940	47	4.0746	-29.00	-.12
Teaching Experience	17	4.1970	45	4.0758	-28.00	-.12
Personal Assessment	12	4.2537	35	4.4478	-23.00	.19
Written Communication With External Professionals	10	4.2687	28	4.5224	-18.00	.25
Mobility	39	3.9385	57	3.7231	-18.00	-.22

Finally, although every item was rated at least as "important" for both securing and succeeding in a job, eight items obtained an average rating below 4 ("very important") for both securing a position and succeeding in a position (Table 6). These items could be clustered in four basic areas: formal eduction, (specialist and doctoral degrees), professional development (conferences, meetings), influence (mentor, role models), and career components (mobility, knowledge of career options, short term career plans). What is striking about these categories is that they all can be seen as directly controlled orinfluenced by the structure and the providers of

educational administration programs. Most importantly, the professional development and influence factors can provide lasting and continuous opportunities for administrator growth and success, but they are among the lowest rated components in both sets of conditions. Despite the fact that they are seen as less important, even in relation with or consideration of all the other factors on the instrument, they are critical nonetheless. The relatively low ratings of these factors can be the result of several conditions, such as inability of students to see their importance, ineffectiveness of programs of study to allow for modeling and mentoring, faculty weaknesses, or political realities which speak to more important issues such as initial certification and local networking. Whatever the case may be, serious examination of these factors as they affect program structure and delivery and career development can be instructive.

Table 6. Items with Lowest Mean Scores

ITEM	Securing a Position Mean (Rank)	Succeeding in a Position Mean (Rank)
Specialist Degree	3.7667 (49)	3.6167 (60)
Doctorate	3.3333 (61)	3.2407 (62)
Conferences Meetings	3.2813 (62)	3.8125 (55)
Mentor(s)	3.8906 (41)	3.8750 (53)
Role Model(s)	3.6719 (55)	3.8281 (54)
Mobility	3.9385 (39)	3.7231 (57)
Knowledge of Career Options	3.8182 (46)	3.6364 (59)
Short Term Career Plans	3.7576 (50)	3.7727 (56)

Conclusion

There is a better way to teach educational administrators than by traditional coursework which stresses theory. The findings of this study

seem to indicate that self assessment based on reliable measurements can be used by students of educational administration in a practical way to secure and succeed at administrative jobs. This self-assessment process emphasizes the analysis of the critical knowledge, skills and attitudes of the MyCAP Asessment Instrument and Teacher Certification Test. Factors identified in this way allow students to make individual determinations of personal and professional strengths they already possess, and areas where they need further development. The MyCAP instrument, therefore, can serve as a valid device for a career action plan. In addition, MyCAP can serve as a basis for student advisement and improvement of leadership programs.

The expanded MyCAP instrument was administered to 67 practicing and aspiring educational administrators enrolled in the Ed.S. degree program practicum. Data were analyzed through descriptive and inferential statistics with special focus on the change in relative importance of the items (securing vs. succeeding in a job). These analyses revealed important changes in the ranking of the items, and that the newly added items from the state certification instruments were perceived as important in securing and succeeding in a job.

While this study represents only one step in ongoing efforts to reflect field and policy changes in preparation programs, it does offer results which tend to validate the importance of the items contained in Georgia's new Leadership Performance Assessment Instrument and Teacher Certification Test for administrators and supervisors. What is perhaps more important is an examination of how well these factors are or should be addressed in administrator preparation programs.

In summary, the importance of certain factors relating to securing and succeeding in administrative positions, their rankings, and their differences have been clarified in this study. In continuing research, the MyCAP instrument was administered to 34 students enrolled in the Fall 1988 Ed.S. degree program practicum. Again, self confidence ranked at the top for both securing and succeeding, and the knowledge, skill and attitude factors on the Leadership Performance Assessment Instrument proved significant for job success. Such results have powerful implications for improved selection, training and support procedures for educational leaders and are presently being used by faculty in Valdosta State College's Department of Educational Administration and Supervision to improve student advising and program opportunities. Conceivably, additional factors will be identified in future administrations of the MyCAP instrument. However, greater progress is expected now through the clarification and elaboration for those factors ranked highest in this study.

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Chapter 5

Professional Formation and a Tri-Dimensional Approach to the Preservice Preparation of School Administrators

John C. Daresh

In 1987, the Report of the National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration was published under the title, *Leaders for America's Schools: The Report of the National Committee*. Although this report has been criticized by some who believed its recommendations not to be forceful enough to bring about improvement in the training of educational administrators, the report did contain a clear call for modifications in the ways in which individuals are prepared. Among the suggestions was that greater attention should be placed on the discovery of ways in which universities and local education agencies might collaborate more effectively. Second, the report recommended that administrator preparation programs include more opportunities for "clinical" approaches to learning.

In this paper, a conceptual model for the preservice preparation of school administrators is presented. The model takes into account two areas needing attention, namely an increase of collaborative efforts between universities and local school systems and opportunity for more "clinical" learning opportunities. The focus is on the needs of beginning educational administrators.

Research on Beginning Administrators

Relatively few research studies have been conducted regarding the needs and concerns of beginning school administrators. Among the works which

have been completed are small-scale studies conducted in Great Britain by Nockels (1981) and Turner (1981), along with doctoral research carried out in the United States by Marrion (1985), Sussman (1985), and Diederich (1988). A common finding, supported by the work of Duke (1984), was that the first year of the principalship is a time filled with frustration and anxiety.

Another study of a wider scale was conducted by the National Foundation for Educational Research (NFER) in Great Britain (Weindling & Earley, 1987). This work reviewed the characteristics of the first years of secondary school head teachers throughout the United Kingdom. Interviews were conducted of beginning head teachers, their teaching staffs, deputies, and administrative superiors to determine the ways in which such individuals adjusted to their first positions, and also the nature of frustrations felt by the novice administrators. In addition, the study examined such issues as the paths traditionally followed to the headship, the nature of preparation programs and activities, local education authority (school district) support mechanisms, and the relationships between the heads of schools and their management teams. Among the recommendations that were derived from the findings of this study was that beginning school administrators need to receive special consideration and support from their employers if they are to achieve a high degree of success on the job. Weindling and Earley also noted that a major problem for head teachers was their isolation from their teaching staffs, as well as from their administrative peers. Accordingly, if improvements are to take place in preparation programs and the socialization of people to the field of administration, ways need to be found to reduce the sense of alienation so evident in the daily lives of most school administrators (Weindling & Earley, 1987).

In another study of beginning principals, Daresh (1987) interviewed 12 elementary and secondary school principals to determine their perceptions of problems faced on the job. He found that major concerns were in three areas: (a) problems with role clarification (Who am I, now that I am a principal?), (b) limits on technical expertise (How do I do the things that "they" want me to do?), and (c) difficulties with socialization to the profession in general and also to individual school settings (What do "they" do around here?).

Most studies of beginning administrators have found a rather consistent set of themes that have obvious implications for the ways in which individuals might be better prepared to assume leadership roles in schools. "Hand on" learning of administrative tasks and responsibilities is called for as a way to allow people to develop skill and confidence in their ability to do their work. Second, preservice preparation programs need to stress the development of strong norms of collegiality within aspiring administrators for a realization that one will rarely be effective by trying to "go it alone." Third, strategies must be developed to help people test some of their

fundamental assumptions and beliefs concerning the nature of power, authority, and leadership well before stepping into a principalship or another administrative role. Enough is known about the problems faced by newcomers to the field of administration that preparation programs may be greatly improved over current practices.

A Proposed Model

There is considerable dissatisfaction with what is taking place in schools, and that has been reflected in the plethora of recent reform proposals. Any proposal for changing the preservice preparation of school administrators must be sensitive to the likelihood that some of what is now taking place is good, but also that it could be better with some modification. This results in a model that shall be described here as a "Tri-Dimensional Conceptualization" Model.

Lortie (1975) suggested that there are three sources of occupational socialization: (1) formal education, (2) apprenticeship, and (3) "learning by doing." In the sections that follow, the argument will be advanced that people must be prepared for leadership roles through equal attention to strong academic programs (Lortie's view of "formal educational"), realistic guided practice in the field (the "apprenticeship" and "learning by doing components of Lortie), and the professional formation of aspiring administrators. This results in a model that shall be described here as a "Tri-Dimensional Conceptualization Model."

Dimension I: Academic Preparation

Traditional approaches to preparing educational administrators have emphasized the acquisition of knowledge related to administrative tasks and responsibilities through the vehicle of graduate-level university courses. Traditional courses in such field as school law, finance, curriculum development, personnel management,and school-community relations, along with more recent additions such as computer applications, instructional leadership, equity, and knowledge production and acquisition for administrators are viewed as critical to the skills associated with the effective administrative performance.

Assumptions and Rationale for Academic Preparation

The reliance on university courses as a way to prepare individuals for school administration is rooted in a number of assumptions. These are related to the value of conventional courses as the "process by which a

person learns and performs according to the norms, values, and behaviors held to be necessary for performing a particular professional role" (Blumbug, 1980, p. 221). Duke (1987) noted that formal academic preparation is used to carry out the professional socialization process by exposing administrators to "course content, contact with professors, practitioners, and peers" (p. 267).

Academic Preparation in the form of university-based course work is a practical way to assist future administrators to develop strong conceptual appreciation of a complex field of practice. Courses are useful in assisting people to acquire the basic "language" and knowledge base of their field. Learning the basic characteristics of due process through a brief lecture in school law is more simple than from many other learning sources.

The assumptions for the formal Academic Preparation dimension come from a view which holds that learning is essentially the product of a process of information assimilation (Little, 1981). The medium of learning is symbolic, where words or numbers are used to provide meaning to complex features of reality, and instructional techniques normally include lectures and seminar discussions. Learning takes place in classrooms and libraries. The information assimilation mode may be depicted through the cyclical model in Appendix I.

Little (1981, p. 9) describes the steps of the information assimilation process in the following way:

> As a first step, symbolic information is provided about what is considered in general principle. The next step is to process bits of information (facts) so that the general principle is that solids, liquids, and gases are the forms of matter with the operational condition being the relative concentration of molecules, understanding is enhanced by the information that ice, water, and steam are all forms of the same compound. The third step is to infer the distance between the molecules and thus transform water into steam. The final component is to apply the principle concretely—to see whether what is supposed to happen actually happens.

The traditional guardians of the Academic Preparation dimension have been members of the university faculty in educational administration, as there is a need for some group to focus its attention on knowledge-production rather than knowledge-utilization. Those who live in the "Ivory Tower" are able to engage in the type of inquiry that must take place in an environment not necessarily burdened by the "noise" and daily crises found in most schools. Some group such as a university faculty must have the time to look at issues that go beyond the solution of problems in "the here and now," and the best way for these perspectives to be shared with the practitioner community is through the traditional university course.

Limitations on Academic Preparation

Academic Preparation, particularly when defined as university-based course work, is far from a complete approach to the ways in which schools administrators are made ready for their jobs. Perhaps the most basic problem is that the content of university courses is based on the choices made by university faculty acting independently as self-defined "experts" in the teaching field of their choice. The self interests of the academic community, therefore, are not only primarily served, they are virtually the only priorities that are addressed. Expertise, in the context of the university world, is defined through a professor's knowledge base, acquired usually through research findings. A professor might know much about personnel management but have no skill at working with colleagues—something that would probably prohibit a job in the "real world." Rarely are clients (past, present, or future) consulted regarding the nature of what is to be taught through the medium of university courses. Dialogue between practitioners and academics might yield some important insights into the ideal content to be included as part of Academic Preparation.

Another traditional drawback to Academic Preparation concerns the issue of "how" the content of university courses is presented for student learning. A university course traditionally makes almost exclusive use of the information assimilation model of learning. Thus, there is great reliance on the lecture, with its emphasis on one-way communication from professor to students. If this large-group technique that causes students to be passive and reactive learners is modified, other forms of instruction that are largely classroom-bound and oriented are likely used. Rarely do university faculty incorporate learning activities that enable students of administration to "taste" the reality of leadership in schools. To be sure, some professors make efforts to expand their instruction by requiring students to interview practicing administrators, observe school board meetings, conduct community surveys, or by inviting local school practitioners to appear in classes. All of these represent commendable ways in which efforts are made to make classes more relevant and lively, but they are of lasting value only if they are tied in some thoughtful way to the instructional objectives of the classes, and if follow-up analysis and dialogue are also provided. If they are viewed as extra projects that are assigned to students out of some notion that they might be "good experiences," they may be much more valuable as ornamentation than they are as vital parts of student learning.

Other shortcomings of Academic Preparation based on university course work come from a considerable amount of criticism found throughout the literature of administrator preservice preparation. Bridges (1977), for example, described typical leadership training programs as failing to

socialize people to the realities of leadership because, among other things, they stress the acquisition of written skills despite the fact that leaders must function in a highly "verbal" world, and they prepare prospective leaders to be "thinkers" rather than "doers." Achilles (1987) noted other severe limitations on existing, university-directed preparation programs because such efforts rely on courses which are *not*:

1. . . . taken in any particular sequence.

2. . . . differentiated for differing degree levels (MA or PhD/EdD) or levels of administration (principalship or superintendency).

3. . . . designed with some type of unifying conceptual framework.

4. . . . developed with an underlying reliance on learning theory (or perhaps any overarching theory base), particularly adult learning theory.

5. . . . closely aligned with desired outcomes, or coordinated with the work administrators do—or should do.

6. . . . typically related to rigorous evaluation, either singly, or for their contribution to a total administrator preparation program.

No doubt, other objections and limitations might be voiced regarding the quality of courses used in many administrator preparation programs. But there are values in these forms of learning as well. The critical issue is that if traditional university course work is viewed as addressing but one dimension of a comprehensive and conceptually-oriented approach to the preservice preparation of school administrators, limitations might be greatly reduced, and the value of the Academic Preparation might be greatly enhanced.

Dimension II: Field-Based Learning

The view of many reformers of preparation programs for school administrators seems to be that the improvement of training depends on field-based and experiential learning programs for aspiring administrators. From various sources, including the National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration (1987), Goodlad (1984), Cornett (1983), Achilles (1987), and Baltzell and Dentler (1983), comes a clear and consistent call for administrator preparation programs to stop teaching *about* administration

and instead, direct greater attention toward helping people to learn *how to administer* schools. The suggestions in most proposals call for intense internships, planned field experiences, and other forms of practica. A suggestion to this effect offered by the Southern Regional Educational Board (SERB) is fairly representative: "Colleges need to develop programs solidly grounded in theory, but which also include some practicality. Internships, offered in full cooperation with local school districts, are one solution."

There is a strong tendency to move toward preservice preparation programs that are largely field-based in nature. LaPlant (1988) suggested that universities should probably get out of the administrator preparation business entirely and turn it over to practitioners in the field. According to this view, universities should be places where people are educated (through Academic Preparation alone), not "trained" or "prepared" in ways that practitioners are much better able to do. Of course, these suggestions may raise the logical question, "If practitioners are really better prepared to train people, why don't we always see better practice out in the field after people have concluded their university course work?" Ultimately, such discussions may have the unintended consequence of further distancing university faculty members from working productively with their colleagues in the field.

The literature provides a fairly well-defined picture of what field-based programs are. Daresh and LaPlant, (1986) reviewed descriptions of the characteristics of programs in institutions affiliated with the University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA) and discovered the following general features:

1. Typical field-based programs are not required of all students enrolled in educational administration programs, but rather, only of students seeking an administrative credential. When required, field-based activities most often occur near the end of students' planned programs.

2. Most programs operate in basically the same fashion: Students are expected to register for an academic credit-bearing course entitled "Administrative Internship," "Planned Field Experience," or some similar title, spend anywhere from 10 to 40 hours per week during an academic term observing practitioners who, in turn, assign students tasks or projects to be carried out under their supervision.

3. Field-based programs normally provide academic credit, but student evaluation is of the Pass/Fail variety. Responsibility for evaluating student performance most often resides with the university faculty member who coordinates the practicum.

4. The university faculty-coordinator is usually the only faculty member in a department of educational administration who works with students enrolled in the practicum. Other than initial academic processes for some students, the majority of faculty is not active in supervising practica. In several institutions, the person responsible for supervising internships and planned field experiences is not a regular university faculty member but, rather, an adjunct clinical instructor or lecturer.

5. The duration of most field experiences is normally dictated by the length of the university's academic term and not on the time required to complete an assigned project or experience.

6. Students who participate in the majority of internships or field experiences are not paid for their work. As a result, the majority of participants in field-based administrator preparation programs are involved on a part-time basis while attempting to continue with teaching or other professional responsibilities in the same schools where they are also engaged in their practica.

Assumptions and Rationale for Field-Based Learning

Assumptions that field-based programs are a way to enhance the quality of traditional academic programs seem to be well-founded. Such programs are ways for aspiring administrators to apply theoretical learning and develop their administrative skills through participation in a wide range of daily administrative duties, and apply knowledge learned in the classroom to a real-life setting. Field-based programs are ways for students of administration to witness the practicalities associated with running schools, particularly if they are able to work with talented administrators who can also serve as effective role models.

Limitations on Field-Based Learning

Despite the relatively persistent emphasis on the need for Field-Based Learning programs to prepare administrators, however, some limitations derive from this form of learning, in large part when it is not combined with other models or dimensions of learning, most notably a strong background based on Academic Preparation. In the field of teacher education, many authorities have questioned some fundamental assumptions about the value of the practicum as a learning devise. From Dewey (1938) to the observations of Berliner (1984), Cruickshank and Armaline (1986), and Zeichner (1985), numerous cautions have been offered that Field-Based Learning experiences may actually be viewed as "miseducative," and that they create

cognitive and behavioral traps which often close avenues to conceptual and social changes that may be warranted (Daresh & Pape, 1987). In short, Field-Based Learning programs too often may serve to prepare people only for what is at present, what it was in the past, but not what might be in the future. The field experience for preparing future educational leaders cannot be viewed in the same vein as the apprenticeship utilized in the training of plumbers and electricians who are prepared for the future by learning the time-honored techniques that have work in the past.

In his analyses of the nature of the work carried out by school principals, Peterson (1985) concluded that there were serious restrictions on Field-Based Learning.

> The principal's work . . . is complex and comprised of a wide range of demands and expectations. The content of learning of necessity should cover most of this complexity . . . . Principals, like other managers, must develop the necessary skills and knowledge . . . in order to run an effective school. Some of these can only be learned on the job while others are best learned in a combination of formal training and on-the-job learning.

Field-Based Learning experiences may be extremely powerful ways for people to learn about their craft. On the other hand, too great a reliance on the practicum would be as unwise as attempts to prepare people for leadership roles "by the book"—only through Academic Preparation found on a university campus.

Dimension III: Personal Formation

The most important dimension of administrator preparation is the one which is rarely addressed in a direct fashion. This dimension will be referred to as "Personal Formation," and consists of those activities consciously directed toward assisting aspiring administrators to synthesize learnings acquired through other sources, and also to develop a personalized appreciation of what it means to be an educational leader. A major problem faced by the novice is the lack of understanding concerning what leadership, authority, power, and control mean on a very individual level. Personal Formation may be seen as a way to address this problem while also providing a person with a way of constructing a personalized moral and ethical stance that may be utilized in framing responses to a variety of future administrative problems.

Component Structural Elements of Personal Formal

At least five specific elements may be viewed as components of the Personal Formation dimension. These are mentoring, personal reflection, appreciation fo alternative styles, and personal professional action planning.

Mentoring. Ashburn, Mann and Purdue (1987) defined mentoring as the "establishment of a personal relationship for the purpose of professional instruction and guidance." Wasden (1988) advanced this basic definition with another view of mentorship:

> The mentor is a master at providing opportunities for the growth of others, by identifying the situations and events which contribute knowledge and experience to the life of the steward. Opportunities are not happenstance; they must be thoughtfully designed and organized into a logical sequence. Sometimes hazards are attached to opportunity. The mentor takes great pains to help the steward recognize and negotiate dangerous situations. In doing all this, the mentor has an opportunity for growth through service, which is the highest form of leadership.

Mentorship is an accepted practice that has been endorsed as a part of the developmental process in many professions. As Schein (1978) noted, the concept has long been used in business organizations to denote such diverse images as "teacher, coach, trainer, positive role model, developer of talent, opener of doors, protector, sponsor, or successful leader." Mentoring needs to be understood as a combination of most, if not all, of these individual roles (Galvez-Hjornevik, 1986). Thus, mentoring is a crucial component of experiential education and learning programs. Mentors are needed to help neophytes in a field find their way and make sense out of what is happening around them in an organization, and also what may be going on in their personal lives. There is considerable potential to be found in applying the concept of mentorship to the Personal Formation of school administrators.

Mentors are different from role models or field supervisors who may work with aspiring administrators during other formal Field-Based Learning activities. Kram (1985), for example, noted that other terms that might be used to describe developmental relationships in work settings might include "sponsorship," "coaching," "role modeling," "counseling," and "friendship." Shapiro, Haseltine, and Rowe (1978) suggested that there is a type of continuum of advisory relationships that facilitate access to positions of managerial leadership. On one end is a "peer pal" relationship, and on the other end is the "mentor" relationship, or the type envisioned in this Tri-Dimensional Model as an important part of the Personal Formation (Merriam, 1983):

> *Peer Pal*—Someone at the same level as yourself with whom you share information, strategies, and mutual support for mutual benefit.

> *Guide*—Can explain the system, but is not usually in the position to champion a protegee.

Sponsor—Less powerful than a patron in promoting and shaping the career of a protegee.

Patron—An influential person who uses his or her power to help a person advance in his or her career.

Mentor—An intense paternalistic relationship in which an individual assumes the roles of both teacher and professional advocate.

The types of developmental relationships described focus on the business-related concept of finding relationships that are designed primarily to foster career advancement which, in the world of private industry, is typically defined as moving upward in the promotion hierarchy toward some tangible goal as a senior regional manager position, a vice presidency, or even as the company president. Similar perspectives have been contributed to the literature on mentoring by Dalton, Thompson, and Price (1977), Anderson and Devanna (1980) and Van Vorst (1980). The type of mentoring envisioned as a central part of Personal Formation for school administrators deals more with the concept of finding individuals who will assist other individuals in finding ways to survive in the field.

As mentors, individuals may work with aspiring administrators to "show them how to do things" that are associated with successful performance of a certain job. As a role model, a person may be consulted by a beginning administrator as a way to learn how to construct a master schedule for a school in much the same way that an apprentice carpenter may learn how to form lattice joints after watching a master tradesman. On the other hand, a mentor goes beyond this function by serving as a person who is more inclined to prod a protegee to learn how to do something according to one's personal skills, talents, and limitations. In short, a mentor is likely to raise more questions than provide answers to the mentee.

Among the responsibilities and characteristics as ideal for mentors in a professional development for school administrators are the following:

1. Experience as a practicing school administrators, and recognition of effective performance in that role. (In this regard, the characteristics of an ideal mentor would be the same as those of a person who might serve as a role model in a traditional, field-based program.)

2. Demonstration of generally-accepted qualities of positive leadership (i.e., such features as sense of vision, intelligence, and the ability to communicate effectively with members of the organization).

3. Ability to "ask the right questions" of the protegees with whom they are working, and not just give the "right answer" in all cases.

4. Acceptance of "other ways of doing things," and avoidance of the tendency to tell protegees that the only way to do something is "the way I've always done it."

5. Expression of the sincere desire to see protegees go beyond their present levels of performance, even when that may mean going beyond the mentor's own abilities.

6. Ability to model the values of continuous self-improvement, learning, and reflection.

7. Awareness of the political and social realities of life in at least one school system. (Again, this would be a characteristic of good field-based role model or supervisor as well.)

8. Comfort with the task of working with the developmental needs of adult learners.

9. Above all other qualities, they ability to listen to others, help others clarify their perceptions, and "cause" others to reflect on the experiences they have.

Mentoring as part of the Personal Formation of school administrators is a critical responsibility, and most of the rest of professional development may be related to this element. Consequently, a person who would serve as a mentor must possess the deep desire to work in this capacity. Mentors may serve as role models in traditional field-based programs, or they may not be called upon to work with beginning administrators in skill development. Traditional field role models, however, are not always appropriate mentors, and no confusion should be made between these two very distinct jobs. An ideal arrangement for mentoring would involve the careful matching of protegees with mentors. There would be a one-to-one matching based on analyses of career goals, interpersonal styles, learning needs, and many other variables that might be explored prior to placing administrative candidates with mentors.

Mentoring relationships have important positive effects on the career development of both protegees and mentors. Daresh and Playko (1990) interviewed a group of practicing school administrators who served in an innovative, experiential program for the preparation of school principals

sponsored by the Danforth Foundation. Participating mentors indicated a number of benefits derived from their work:

1. They were able to understand their own professional values and methods of operating as the result of having aspiring administrators constantly seeking clarification of their practices and ways of approaching problems.

2. They experienced a sense of renewed commitment to their work, and to the potential of their positions to bring about positive change in their schools and districts.

3. They achieved a sense of satisfaction because work with aspiring administrators enabled them to refine their own interpersonal communication skills and abilities.

The tentative results of this study suggest that mentorship has a value in its own right.

Personal Reflection. A second important element of the Personal Formation dimension is related to the development of skills related to personal reflection to guide administrator performance. Reflection about one's professional performance in a role is a rather simple concept to define. As Posner (1985) observed concerning the use of reflectivity in student teaching, people would benefit greatly from their experiences if they had the opportunity to prepare for and think about those experiences before and after they occur. This theme has long been championed by Schön (1983) who advanced the concept of reflection as a guide to action in many professions. The basic idea is simply stated—an effective, reflective practitioner would be the person who realizes that, before he or she tries to solve problems, it is critical to think about the nature of the "right" problems to be solved.

In the professional development of educators, there has been a consistent recent call for adding reflection as a component for teacher candidates. In an analysis of one of the drawbacks to student teaching practices, Beyer (1984) observed that teaching candidates often learn negative behaviors in the field because they are prone to engage in "uncritical acceptance" of what they see, hear, and experience. The same danger, of course, exists in training programs for administrators who may see wholly unacceptable or even unethical practices being rewarded "in reality." Reflection, particularly if directed by a sensitive mentor, is a way to encourage the aspiring administrator to make critical judgments about the appropriateness of activities witnessed in the field. Again, referring to Beyer (1984):

> Experiences which promote uncritical replication of observed practice are antithetical to the purposes of education itself. Promoting activities . . . which generate such perspective is, thus, contradictory to some fundamental purposes of education as this is often understood.

Developing reflective skill is one important way to question the value of practices and assumptions seen in the field, and this is a critical part of developing a personal professional identity.

Questions that may be used to guide the process of personal reflection and help a person to focus on what leadership is all about might include any or all of the following:

- What have I seen out in the field?
- How does what I have seen fit my personal view of what life as an administrator will be?
- Why is what I have seen important?
- What have I learned?
- What do I want to know more about?
- How can I describe what I have seen?
- In what ways can I verify my description of what I have seen?
- What is the meaning of my experience?
- How does the description and my personal meaning relate to my personalized vision of what "should" be?
- What else can be learned?
- What is the overall significance of what I have done and seen?
- Now that I have done something, so what?

As beginning administrators proceed through practical, on-the-job experiences that are followed by a period of reflecting on the answers to questions such as these, they should develop a much deeper understanding of administration. Personalized reflection may also result in a person

making a deliberate decision to leave administration or not even go into it in the first place. That, too, would be a desirable outcome in that it may reduce the number of people who pursue careers in administration out of "accident" or some false sense of purpose, rather than as a result of a conscious and deliberate plan and design.

The way to integrate personal reflection would be through an expectation that candidates for future administrative positions would keep a diary, or reflective log, in which they would regularly record their personal descriptions of reality and their responses to some of the questions that were listed earlier. Writing these observations down in a formal way develops skills at articulating important personal beliefs that may be of use in the future.

Education Platform Development. Another important ingredient is the preparation of a formal statement of one's own educational philosophy, beliefs, and values. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1988) referred to this activity as the development of a personalized educational platform. In their view, professional educators are encouraged periodically to review personal stances about important educational issues. In doing this, persons would state the ideas that they espouse, in a way similar to the platform statements made by candidates running for a political office. The major difference would be that the educational platform should be designed to communicate a person's attitudes, values, and beliefs about education, even if these statements were contrary to the sentiments of the majority of people "out in the public."

Sergiovanni and Starratt suggested that an educational platform might include personalized responses to questions that come from the following ten major issues:

1. The aims of education.
2. Major achievement of students.
3. The social significance of student learning.
4. The image of the learner.
5. The value of the curriculum.
6. The image of the teacher.
7. Preferred kind of pedagogy.
8. The primary language of discourse to be used in the learning situation.

9. Preferred kinds of teacher-student relationships.

10. Preferred kind of school climate.

Clearly, there will be not absolutely "correct" or "incorrect" answers to any of these issues; however, the process of spending time to think through, and actually write out, personal interpretations of each of these items would have a number of advantages, particularly for persons moving into new professional roles. Preparing a platform statement helps in the process of Personal Formation by enabling persons to recognize their strongest beliefs (and perhaps unwanted biases as well) about significant issues in professional education. Some of the responses to the ten areas will come about much more quickly then will others. These areas serve as place holders for concepts where there is probably the strongest allegiance to certain values. The basis of these may be viewed as "core" or "non-negotiable" values for an individual. A second benefit is it alerts individuals to probable conflicts that are likely to be ahead. In addition to individual platforms, all organizations also subscribe to, at least implicitly, strong statements of public values, usually stated as part of institutional philosophies and value statements. When persons enjoy a deep understanding of their educational platform, they may tell in advance where sources of conflict are to be found in relationships with organizations. Understanding the exact sources or probable value disputes should assist most individuals in finding more effective ways of dealing with life in institutions.

Every aspiring, beginning, or continuing administrator should periodically articulate a personal education platform. Further, there is also considerable value in sharing this platform statement with others, a mentor or other colleagues. This sharing process should take place with considerable regularity and frequency. This process is helpful in enabling others to gain insights into one's behavior and, perhaps even more importantly, causing an individual to be as clear as possible about the nature of personal values and beliefs. A platform is something which is never really completed. Rather, platform preparation must be viewed as a dynamic and ongoing activity carried out by every thoughtful school administrator.

Understanding Interpersonal Styles. Another aspect of Personal Formation deals with the development of an appreciation of different interpersonal styles and how those differences relate to one's own predominant style of behavior. Successful administrators must have an appreciation for individual differences, along with a recognition of the ways in which those differences may have a profound effect on administrator's ability to exercise their preferred modes of behavior. This is important in several specific arenas in which the administrator must work. Daily communication and

ongoing relationships with staff and students, they creation of teams (both teaching and management), school-community relations, and other settings make demands on educational administrators to be sensitive to the dynamics in school organizations when people behave differently from one another.

Merrill and Reid (1981) suggested that the appreciation of personal styles is a basic step in developing more effective performance in any professional role. Their work is based on the following assumptions:

1. People perform most effectively when they are engaged in positive interpersonal relationships.

2. A mutually-productive relationship is an asset that one needs to work at in order to maintain over time.

3. The modification of one's approach in order to improve an interpersonal relationship does not constitute a lack of sincerity or a Machiavellian desire to manipulate other people. Quite the opposite, it demonstrates respect for another person's right to be unique.

4. One of the greatest insights to life is the mature recognition that others are at least as important in the greater scheme of things as oneself.

5. Developing a wide variety of skills and techniques for handling interpersonal relationships is a highly desirable objective.

6. A certain amount of effort is required to develop new skills, and this effort is good in the sense that it represents a type of intense personal growth.

7. Those things that are out of one's control may be attributed to any source one desires, but controlling what can be controlled—one's own activities and actions—need not contradict one's beliefs and personal platform.

In many ways, the suggestions that aspiring or beginning school administrators would do well to learn how to appreciate and understand their own and others' interpersonal styles is an important complement to the idea of the platform development. Administrators should develop an understanding of the ways in which their values must relate to other platforms that will be found among the people who work in the organization. A well-developed administrator preservice preparation and professional development program would do well to include formal training in the analysis of interpersonal styles and psychological types (Coulson, 1987).

A part of this emphasis on the analysis of interpersonal and other styles might be the use of such instruments as the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (Myers, 1962) or a learning style instrument such as Kolb's Learning Style Profile (1976).

Personal Professional Action Planning. The final element in the Personal Formation is the articulation of a statement regarding one's overall personal professional development. This activity puts all of the insights gathered from the first two dimensions (Academic Preparation and Field-Based Learning) together with insights derived from the activities of mentoring, personal reflection, platform development, and style analysis into a single, coherent action plan. Administrators (or future administrators) are encouraged at this point to indicate where they believe that additional work is needed. One of the greatest potential benefits of Personal Formation—the synthesis of learning—may occur in this activity. In addition, the most desirable objective of any learning activity, namely the acceptance of control over learning by the learner, may take place. As a result, where inexperienced school administrators are "cut loose" from the preparation program and told that they must plan and take responsibility for learning what will make sense throughout a professional career.

While Personal Professional Action Planning might be seen as the culminating activity of a preparation or entry year program, it should be woven in as a part of a sequence of activities designed to address administrator professional development needs. From the beginning of a future administrator's first university course in educational administration, there should be an explicit statement of the need to accept personal responsibility for translating course content into individual action. Each of the dimensions of the Tri-Dimensional Model presented in this chapter may be seen as simultaneously occurring to what goes on in the other features of the Model. Personal Formation must be taking place while Academic Preparation is going on, and Field-Based Learning should be taking place to enhance Academic Learning and clarifying Personal Formation. The simultaneous nature of these three dimensions is depicted in the triangular diagram presented in Appendix II.

Assumptions and Rationale for Personal Formation

The inclusion of an emphasis on Personal Formation as part of a preservice preparation program for school administrators is based on two fundamental assumptions: (a) that beginning administrators rarely have the opportunity to do much more than respond to crises in a reactive fashion and have little time to engage in a review of their personal priorities, and (b) that adults need to learn in ways other than through the traditional information assimilation model used in university courses.

With regard to the first issue, an important source of information that deserves to be consulted is the body of research on beginning administrators and their problems. While there is limited information, what is to be found is fairly clear in terms of repeated issues. Novice school administrators have trouble with knowing exactly how to do things on the job. Most beginners find ways of coping with a lack of technical skill rather quickly. People almost intuitively seek advice and counsel from others in the organization—other principals, experienced teachers, or school secretaries—to "learn the ropes" when they are first hired. The aspect of "coming on board" as a new principal which is rarely addressed in any structured way is the appreciation for the personal demands that must go along with the title of "principal" or "school administrator." There are rarely opportunities built into preparation programs for aspiring administrators to think about their personal perceptions and understandings of what it means to be "The Boss." As a result, culture shock is experienced by many administrators when they take on their first positions. Many never recover from this initial shock. Adding the component of Professional Formation to a preservice preparation program for school administrators may be a way in which this initial trauma for beginners can be reduced and may also serve as a mechanism to determine that they are not as interested in administration. Such self-selection out of school administration can be viewed as positive as well.

The second source of rationale for the concept of Personal Formation is that this dimension has a likelihood of adding a different perspective to the predominant learning theory used in preparation programs. Existing administrator preparation programs tend to place considerable emphasis on the use of Academic Preparation as the primary preservice learning experience, with a hint of Field-Based Learning tossed in for good measure. These traditional approaches, then, tend to make almost exclusive use of the information assimilation mode for learning by students. The introduction of Personal Formation into a preservice preparation program provides another approach to learning, namely experiential learning. A diagram of this conceptualization, as described by Kolb, is presented in Appendix III. The significant difference in this approach to learning, as contrasted with information assimilation, is that experiential learning places much emphasis on the ability of individual learners to control their own learning activities through a cycle of learning by doing, reflecting, formulating individual responses and understandings, followed by further experiences. This model is in harmony with the prevailing assumptions found in current descriptions of adult learning (Bandura, 1978), and is an appropriate addition to programs designed to prepare adults to become school leaders.

Limitations on Personal Formation

There are some limitations on this view as well. The most significant drawback to the concept of Personal Formation for school administrators may be found when this approach becomes used as a replacement for all other dimensions traditionally included in preparation programs. Some may suggest that the way to improve administrative preparation is to remove the universities from the business entirely, and to let practitioners handle all training. The argument might be advanced that the only way to learn about administration is to learn "at Nellie's Elbow," or out in the field. Personal Formation offers a tempting addition to this approach by saying also that people need mentors to assist in their experience-based learning. The problem with this perspective—a blend of Personal Formation and Field-Based Learning alone—is that there is not room in this approach for people to learn basic concepts and principles of administration. Further, without a basis in strong Academic Preparation, there is likely to be little or no exposure to recent research on administrative practices. Personal Formation makes sense as an addition to existing administrative preparation programs, but not as a complete replacement for much of what is already taking place.

Balancing the Dimensions

The Tri-Dimensional Model for the preservice preparation and ongoing professional development of school administrators has been described as a way to address some of the perceived shortcomings of many efforts to prepare and support educational leaders. The most significant departure from conventional approaches was the addition of the concept of Personal Formation.

Possible applications of the Tri-Dimensional Model centered on preservice preparation for administrators and, to a lesser extent, on possible ways in which this model may serve to enhance entry year, or induction, programs for administrators. The elements of Academic Preparation, Field-Based Learning, and Personal Formation may also serve as the basis for an even more comprehensive approach to administrator professional development, an approach that would also take into account the need to address the inservice learning needs of practitioners who have been in the field for a long time. In this section, a description will be offered for the ways in which the basic conceptual framework of the Tri-Dimensional Model may be used in continuing professional development.

The basic plan for administrator professional develop is based on the initial view that "professional development" consists of three phases:

preservice preparation, induction, and inservice education. Preservice preparation consists of those phases that take place prior to initial job placement. Recruitment, selection, training, licensure, and placement into a first job are all components of the preservice preparation phase.

Induction may be defined as the period in a person's career in a new position in an organization, under a new role definition. Induction is not limited to the first year in a new job. The process of induction is something that is not necessarily concluded after one year. Induction may take several years to complete, depending on the conditions in the organization, the nature of the role, and the characteristics of the phase in less than one year. Others take several years to move beyond a novice role.

Inservice education consists of learning opportunities that are provided to individuals while they are actually engaged in a job. These opportunities may be directed specifically at assisting a person to perform the duties of a particular job more efficiently or effectively, or they may be directed toward the personal growth and development of the person performing a job, regardless of the expectations of the job.

All of the features of the Tri-Dimensional Model may be included in all phases of ongoing professional development. What differs, of course, may be the relative strengths of Academic Preparation, Field-Based Learning, and Personal Formation as a person moves from preservice preparation to induction to inservice education. The diagram shown in Appendix IV is an effort to depict the likely relative balance of the different dimensions in each of the phases.

When persons first enter the field of educational administration (preservice preparation), they will have little basic information concerning the nature of school management. What is administration? How does one define the concept of "plenary power?" What are the constitutional bases for the systems of public education that are found in 50 states? These are examples of the kinds of issues that are fundamental to any appreciation of the concept of educational management in this country. They are best learned through fairly straightforward strategies in classrooms, or through reading, or through other methods that comprise Academic Preparation. As the diagram in Appendix IV suggests, the majority of one's learning at the earliest phases of preservice preparation might involve heavy emphasis, if not exclusive reliance, on Academic Preparation.

As persons progress through the phases of their careers, learning will occur more frequently from an experiential base. As one learns a field more completely through Academic Preparation, experience in the field (i.e., Field-Based Learning) will have more relevance. For example, after one has a fundamental idea of what "formative evaluation of teachers" might be, witnessing a clinical supervision conference will make more sense. While

Academic Preparation decreases throughout a career and Field-Based learning increases, there is never a point where either of these dimensions disappears entirely. Even the newest beginner to preservice preparation can learn experientially, and the most experienced administrators should read a book or attend a lecture to learn about their field.

The dimension that tends to remain constant throughout all phases of a person's carcer is Personal Formation. The need to engage in reflection, thinking about personal ethical stances, and commitment to a profession is constant. The issues that might be considered differ, of course. A beginning administrator's lack of understanding of what it means to be "The Boss" will not be relevant for a ten year veteran of the principal's office. But moral dilemmas that require one to examine personal value systems are to be found at all points in a person's professional life. Even mentoring might be seen as a consistent activity from preservice to inservice. Again, the nature of collegial supportive relationships will change with experience, but more time on a job does not make a person less likely to profit from having an understanding and patient colleague.

What need to be done, of course, is to examine further the assumptions concerning the relative potencies of each of the dimensions at different career phases. Academic Preparation, Field-Based Learning, and Personal Formation can be a part of every administrator's professional life.

Summary

In this chapter, a model was presented to suggest a scheme for a comprehensive approach to the preservice preparation of school administrators. The model included three dimensions: Academic Preparation, Field-Based Learning, and Personal Formation. This third dimension was described as a needed missing element from earlier reform proposals. In this dimension one begins to synthesize the material learned through more traditional sources in preparation programs and forms a personal understanding of administration. The lack of such a personalized understanding and vision is frequently one of the major contributors to failure on the job as a beginning administrator.

The paper also includes a description of the ways in which the three dimensions might be incorporated into a view of one's administrative career, from preservice preparation to entry to ongoing inservice. The relative reliance on Field-Based Learning and Academic Preparation may differ, but Personal Formation is a consistently important ingredient in any professional development plan.

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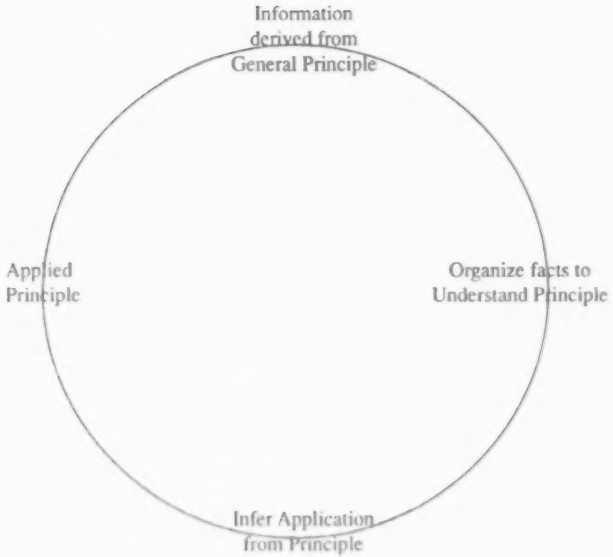
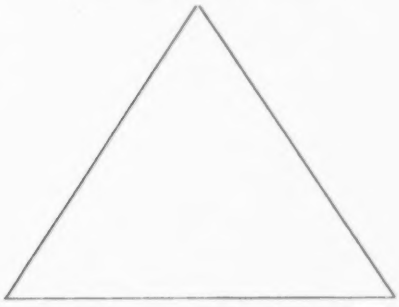
APPENDIX I



Information Assimilation Model of Learning

APPENDIX II

ACADEMIC PREPARATION
(Traditional University Courses)



FIELD-BASED LEARNING (Internships, Planned Field Experiences, Practica, etc.)

PROFESSIONAL FORMATION (Mentoring, Reflection, Platform Development, Styles Analysis, Personal Professional Development)

Diagram representing the Tri-Dimensional Model of Administrator Preparation

APPENDIX III

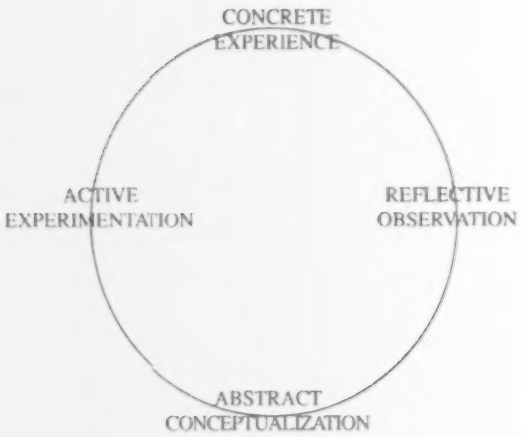
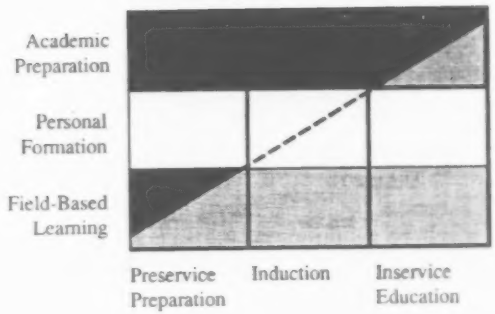


Illustration of the cyclical nature of Kolb's Model
of Experiential Learning

APPENDIX IV



Diagrammatic representation of the relative amounts of the three dimension elements of Professional Development that may be needed at three phases of af an administrative career

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